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ABSTRACT

These two issues include articles under the following headings: themes in education, curriculum and instruction, and theories, practicals, and experiences. The first issue includes: "Parent Participation: The Implications of a Complaint Case" (Ping Man Wong and Antony Yuk Cheung Chan); "Education for New Arrivals and Multicultural Teacher Education In Hong Kong" (Celeste Y.M. Yuen); "An Investigation on the Development of Christian School Culture" (Xiaodong Yue and Kwok Keung Ho); "Using Transparencies and PowerPoint Slides to Aid Inductive Teaching" (Belinda Ho); "Student-Teachers' Beliefs on Primary Science Curriculum Orientations" (Pun Hon Ng and Derek Sin Pui Cheung); "Using Children Literature to Develop Creative Ability of Intelligent Students" (Fung Luen Lau); "On the Teaching of Pinyin to Hong Kong Primary School Children" (Yue Yuan Huang, Suying Yang, and Zheng Li); "The Application of IT on Cross-Strand Integration in General Studies" (Sing Lai Chan); "A Study of Contributory Factors and Developmental Reading Disabilities in Chinese Children: A Comparative Study between Cantonese and Putonghua among Children in Hong Kong and Beijing" (Hua Shu, Alice Cheng Lai, and Xiangzhi Meng); and "Proteges of Singapore Mentoring Principals: Choose Not to Abuse Their Authority in Working with Teachers" (Lee Hean Lim). The second issue of this journal includes: "Pure Charisma: An Application of Leadership in Australian Anglican Church Schools" (Grant M. Bell); "An Explication of Multiple Intelligences Inspired Assessment and Instructional Design" (Kwok Cheung Cheung); "From 'Rooftop' to 'Millennium': The Development of Primary Schools in Hong Kong Since 1945" (Chak Chung and Ming-yan Ngan); "The Development of School-Based Evaluation in Hong Kong" (Siu Wai Wu); "Design and Teaching of a Commercial Chinese Course" (Juen Kon Wong); "Integrating Primary School Curriculum in

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Hong Kong: The Way Forward" (Wai Lun Leung); "An Investigation into the Teaching of Chinese Handwriting at Hong Kong Kindergarten" (Chi Hang Ho, Pui Lee Liu, and Se Yiu Lau); "A Teaching Model That Is Worth Attempting: Group Investigation" (Kam Wing Chan and Ming Fai Hui); "A Study of the Roles and Duties of Secondary 1 to 3 Form Teachers in Hong Kong Secondary Schools" (Mo Luen Leung, Edwin King Por Wong, and Shiu Kwan Pow); and "Promising Bilingual Education in Singapore" (Agnes S.C. Chang). (Papers contain references.) (SM)

New Horizons in Education, 2002

Kwok Keung Ho, Editor

New Horizons in Education n45-46 May-Nov 2002

Journal of Education

Honk Kong Teacher's Association (HKTA)

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NEW HORIZONS

In Education

No. 45 May 2002



教育曙光

香港教師會
教育學報

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION
HONG KONG TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

第四十五期
二零零二年五月

香港教師會

香港教師會於一九三四年成立，以促進教育同工之間的密切合作、提高教育專業人員的地位、維護會員的權益、增進會員的福利、加強國際間的了解為宗旨。香港教師會除了是本港一個教育團體外，同時亦是多個國際性組織的會員，如世界教師專業組織聯合會及國際閱讀協會會員。

香港教師會的週年學術活動有：(一)教育研究大會，如一九九七年舉辦的「優質教育新挑戰：愉快的教與學」研究大會、一九九八年舉辦的「質素保證視學如何提升學校教育質素？」研究大會、一九九九年舉辦的「邁向2000年教師何去何從？」研究大會及二零零零年舉辦的「廿一世紀教師的切身問題」研討會等；(二)本港教育專題研討會，如「幼稚園、小學與中學的銜接研討會」、「特殊學校音樂教育研討會」、「如何為成績稍遜的學生提供有效學習研討會」、「教室管理的科學與藝術」及「母語教學問題及解決方法研討會」等；(三)定期出版教育曙光。近年舉辦的國際學術活動，則有一九九二及一九九九年主辦的海峽兩岸四地學術研究會及一九九八年主辦第三屆東北亞教育論壇。

教育曙光

教育曙光是一份香港教師會出版的教育學報，每期均請專家評審；每年五月及十一月出版，分發全港幼稚園、小學、中學及大專院校。

教育曙光以促進專業發展與教學實踐為宗旨，每期均刊登具實踐和研究價值的文章。文章的範疇包括專題探討本港當前教育問題的剖析，教學、輔導及學校行政的研究，教育新趨勢和新意念的介紹等。

歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿。詳情請參閱每期刊登的徵稿啟示。

教育曙光歡迎各教育機構及個人訂閱。請將訂閱表格及費用寄來香港教師會。

HONG KONG TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

The Hong Kong Teachers' Association (HKTA), founded in 1934, aims at developing close cooperation among educational workers, promoting the professional status of teachers, protecting the rights and improving the welfare of its members and strengthening international understanding of teacher organizations. Apart from being a Hong Kong-based educational body, HKTA is also a member of international organizations such as Education International and the International Reading Association.

The academic activities of HKTA include: (1) the annual education conference, such as the 1997 Conference on New Challenge of Quality Education: Pleasurable and Effective Teaching and Learning, the 1998 Conference on Promoting Quality Assurance Inspection and School Quality, the 1999 Conference on Towards 2000 the Right Way for Teachers and the 2000 Conference on Concerned matters of Teachers of 21st Century; (2) Seminars on local educational issues such as: "Continuity in Preschool, Primary and Secondary Education", "Music Education in Special Schools", "Effective Learning for the Less Able Students", "The Science and Arts of Classroom Management" and "Seminars on the Problems and Solutions of Mother-Tongue Teaching"; and (3) the publication of New Horizons in Education. In 1992 and 1999 HKTA is proud to be the chief organizer and the host for The First and Fifth Educational Conference of China, Taiwan, Hong Kong & Macau and hosted the 1998 Third North-East Asia Teachers' Forum.

NEW HORIZONS IN EDUCATION

New Horizons is a refereed journal of education published in May and November by HKTA. It is distributed to kindergartens, primary and secondary schools and tertiary institutions in Hong Kong.

New Horizons is intended as a forum to stimulate and enhance professional development and practice in education. We publish papers that speak directly to practical school and classroom concerns as well as papers that are based on systematic inquiries into educational issues and practices, including those related to the announced theme(s). We also publish presentations of new developments and innovative ideas tried out in schools, in Hong Kong or elsewhere.

Submissions are invited from teachers, school administrators, persons with pastoral duties, educationists and researchers. General information about submissions can be found in the Call for Papers in each issue of the journal.

Subscription to New Horizons is welcomed. Readers are required to send in a request form and pay by cheque to H.K. Teachers' Association.

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* 用英文撰寫

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今期共收到十九篇來稿，經過雙重不記名的評審後，能被接納而又趕及在付印前修正寄回的稿件只有十一篇。來稿的評審需時平均約為五個星期，最長的要三個月，最快的三天便可知道結果，主要視乎個別評審者的效率及合作程度，編者能做的只是多和評審者溝通及催促。

讀者可在美國教育研究資源中心的光碟系統及在萬維網中(網址如下：<http://www1.fed.cuhk.edu.hk/en/nh/nhindex.htm> or www.hktd.edu.gov.hk) 閱讀本刊各期文章的摘要。歡迎讀者訂閱。

From the Editor

A total of 19 manuscripts were received for consideration in this issue. Twelve could pass the double blind review process and were revised in time. The average reviewing period was less than 5 weeks in this issue, actual time ranging from 3 day to 14 weeks, depending on individual reviewer's cooperation.

Readers can access the abstracts of our past issues (starting from the 1967 issue) through the international data base ERIC or the internet website address: (<http://www1.fed.cuhk.edu.hk/en/nh/nhindex.htm> or www.hktd.edu.gov.hk). Readers are welcomed to subscribe.

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徵 稿

教育曙光整年徵稿，由2000年開始每年刊登兩期。歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿，發表他們從研究和實踐所得的新思維和新啟示。如及時接納（及修訂），將於每年五月或十一月刊登。

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Please send papers to: The Editor, *New Horizons*, Hong Kong Teachers' Association,
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香港在2000年推行「校本管理」，並實施由家長參與校政決策。新政策之精神能否落實，與學校——家庭合作之關係，息息相關。本文報導一個「校本管理」推行前家長與學校接觸的投訴個案，作為家庭與學校關係討論的根據。個案顯示：在校本管理推行之前，家長參與學校事務的情況，只停留在較低的層次，而學校和家長之間，仍沒有建立高層次校政決策參與文化的基礎。故此，面對此教育管理新潮流，學校有需要作好準備，並建立開明的機制，以提升家長參與的層次

Parent Participation: The Implications of A Complaint Case

Hong Kong has started implementing "School-Based management" in 2000. Apart from other factors, the success of the innovation rests largely upon the home-school relationship and the attitudes of both schools and parents towards parent participation. This paper reports a complaint case before the practice of School-Based Management as the basis for discussion in this respect. It is found that parent participation still maintained at a relatively low level and both parties were not well prepared for the change. To keep pace with the new trend of development, it is suggested that schools should take the initiative role for enhancement of parent participation.

引言

香港的教育管理，在九十年代有了明顯的轉變。順應著校本發展的世界潮流，政府在1991年引入了學校管理新措施(SMI)，希望藉此改善管理的架構和程序，提高學校效能（教育及人力統籌科和教育署，1991）。SMI標榜以校本和權力下放的精神，明確界定教育署和資助學校的關係，又給予學校在財政上較大的靈活性，使教育署「由無所不管改為支援和指導」(4.0)，而「校董會和校長(則)確實地負起有效管理資助學校的責任。」(4.8)並容許全體教師、家長和學生(在適當程度上)按照正式程序參與制訂決策(建議10)。

1993年，政府成立了家校合作委員會，統籌及推廣學校設立家長教師會，及在校董會內引進家長代表。1995年，所有SMI學校，必須修正其校董會規章，使能容納家長代表，進入校董會，參與學校決策(HKED, 1995)。

2000年，政府以校本管理(SBM)取代SMI，並強制全港學校推行，落實家長參與校政，亦因此而使有關家長參與校政決策的議題，更值得探討和研究。Baumgartner and Bryan (1993)認為家校合作的基礎，在乎良好的溝通，而主要溝通的類別，又以家長對學校的投訴為首，Epstein(1995)也認為：學校與家長接觸的態度，足以反映學校對家長參與角色的期望，是探測家校合作的指標。本文藉著一個家長投訴個案的報導，除回顧香港一般學校在SBM推行前家校合作的情況外，並為家長參與校政一事，提供一些討論的根據。

有關文獻

在個案及個案研究的定義上，學者雖然還存在著不同的意見，但個案研究的功能，從60年代後期至70年代初期，已開始受到學界一致的肯定，認為對了解一些、特別是不易量化的教育現象十分有用，對知識的增

進和政策的推行，有很大的幫助，而眾多個案的累積和整理，更有助理論的建立(Merriam, 1988)。

在研究文獻中，有關「家長參與」的觀念，英文的用字頗不一致，有稱之為(parent participation)，亦有稱之為(parent involvement)。而家長參與的經驗，亦早有報導(Sammons and others, 1995; Greenwood and Hickman, 1991; Topping, 1986; Epstein, 1992; Chrispeels and Coleman, 1996)，早期研究效能學校(effective schools)的學者，便有「五因子」或「七因子」的理論，將家長對學校的支持和參與，視為其中的一項效能因素(Creemers and Reynolds, 1994)。Epstein (1992, 1995)、Berger (1995)、Golby (1993)和Hornby (1995)等相信，學校與家庭的合作，有助提升學校效能。Blackfelner (1998)亦指出，家長的參與，可提高學生的學業成績。不過，Black, S. (1998)則有所保留，認為對學校及教師而言，家長參與可能只是一種干預(interference)，對學校的運作並無好處。

Epstein (1992, 1995)認為學童應接收一致的教育，指出學校、家長和社區三方面的教育宜緊密配合，於是引入了社區的觀念，並提出了一個有關家長參與的架構，分別為由低層的照顧(parenting)，溝通(communicating)，自願服務(volunteering)，督促學習(learning at home)，到高層的決策(decision making)，和與社區的協作(collaborating with community)等。Ng (1998, 1999)則根據Epstein (1992, 1995)的架構及香港獨特的情況，認為家長參與，類別上可分為：(1)溝通(單軌或雙軌)(2)協助學童學習(3)參與及組織家長活動(4)協助學校運作的推行(5)協助制訂決策和(6)參與制訂決策。個別地方的發展雖有不同，但整體而言，現時的世界潮流是：學校為了能引入更多的校外資源，家長參與的類別亦順應地由低層(1)走向高層(6)。不少的國家，在90年代，已視家長參與為家長應有的公民權利，並給予家長更大的法律權力，使提升至參與教育決策的層次(Cochran and Dean, 1991)。

Hoover and Sandler (1997)分析家長參與的動機有三：(1)作為家長的角色(2)認為參與有助子弟的教育成效(3)由於學校或子弟期望他們的參與。Griffith (1998)亦指出，家長的參與，與子弟在校的成就、家長個人的社經地位和學校積極的鼓勵有關。一般而言，子弟校內成績較佳、家長個人社經地位較高、學校較大的開放和鼓勵，家長的參與也會更投入，參與的層次也會更高。Drake (1995)因此認為，學校如要與家長建立伙伴關係，須先容許家長以下三個層次的參與：(1)學校活動的參與，(2)學校生活的參與及(3)校政決定的參與。

綜合Ravn, 1998; Cohn and Grose, 1998; Birrell, Young and Egan, 1998等人的研究，要提升家長參與層次的先決條件，是雙方面的溝通、良好的關係和互信。

Baumgartner and others (1993)以家課、測驗及評分為例，進一步提供了家校改善關係的主要類別，其中家長對學校的投訴佔32%，居首位，其後依次為教育信念(25%)、溝通(12%)、家長對參與的信念(10%)、家長焦慮(9%)、學生特性(7%)及其他(5%)等。Boutte and others (1992)認為，愛投訴的家長，很多時是完美主義者，其意見可能反映學校的問題所在，值得學校聆聽和三思，所以，如何妥善處理家長對學校的投訴，對家校合作十分重要。不過，現時有關家長對學校投訴個案的報導和分析不多。而Sullivan (1998)亦認為，要家長參與得到提升，一套全面而周詳的行動計畫和組員，不能或缺。而校長的意向和能力，也很重要。

香港SBM推行的目的，是改善管理文化，落實提升家長參與的層次至參與制訂校政，可是，教育署1993年的研究已指出，本地中小學和家庭聯繫的目的和類別狹窄，高層次的聯繫只出現於個別學校(Shen, S.M. and others, 1994; 龐憶華, 1994)，至於中小學家教會數目的明顯增加，則只始於1996-97(Pang, 1997)，一些原先已有家教會成立的學校，亦未願賦與家長參與校政的權利。陳錦洲等(1993)的調查，顯示了家長對校外的參與(指參與個別學生的教育、支援學校等)，大於校內的參與(指參與學校日常的運作和決策等)。根據Ng (1998, 1999)，香港學校對引入家長參與校政的觀念，普遍還有所保留，而家長也未見得主動和願意。所以，陳錦洲等(1993)頗質疑要求家長參與學校決策的可行性，認為香港仍缺乏發展的基礎：習慣了沒有家長參與校政文化的學校，恐難一下子接受家長作為伙伴的觀念。

當然，政府政策強制的規定和執行，對家長參政大氣候(Macro-level)的形成，或有幫助，但從校內的微觀政治(micro-politics)角度去看，對學校的管理層，如校長和主任等來說，落實也並不容易。根據Ball (1987)、Goodson and Marsh(1996)指出，任何宏觀性的教育或課程變革，在學校落實時，都會遇到不少阻力，影響變革的成敗，實在不容忽視。這些阻力的來源，包括了校內團體之間目標和意念的分歧、利益和權力的堅持和爭奪等，所以宏觀和微觀方面互為補充的研究，同樣有一定的價值和需要。本港現時有關家校的研究，多從宏觀角度，本文則嘗試從微觀政治的觀點，透過一個投訴個案的報導，除為上述有關的研究，作一些回應和補充外，並希望能在家長參與校政的問題上，提供更多一些討論的根據。

個案

筆者在本文中採納了Ng (1998, 1999)有關香港家長參與的六個層次，作為界定對學校參與的根據。Ng氏的架構，與Epstein(1995)的概念近似，且較符合本港學校的實情，此外，對本文引入參與層次(一)和(二)的概念，也提供了方便。為了行文上的方便，本文將parent participation譯作「家長參與校政決策」，而parent involvement譯作「家長參與學校事務」，以作識別。由於Ng氏六個層次中的(1)至(4)，以學校作主導，家長的參與性較為被動，故可統稱為層次(一)，屬「家長參與學校事務」，而第(5)層表示家長可以透過諮詢、提供意見和回饋(包括了投訴或對政策現況的質疑)，影響及協助學校政策的修訂等，第(6)則包括由家長加入校董會，直接參與決策，由於第(5)和(6)兩者在不同程度上皆涉及政策的制訂，故可歸類為層次(二)，屬「家長參與校政決策」。以下是各層次和組別的簡單表解：

層次	組別
(二) 家長參與校政決策 (Parent Participation): 家長參與涉及決策層面	(6) 參與制訂決策 (5) 協助制訂決策
(一) 家長參與學校事務 (Parent Involvement): 由學校作主導，家長不涉決策層面	(4) 協助學校運作 (3) 參與及組織家長活動 (2) 協助學童學習 (1) 溝通(單軌或雙軌)

個案發生於1997年7月，屬SBM強制推行前的蘊釀期，家長到校的動機，原意可能只期望與學校作雙軌溝通，屬層次(一)的第(1)組別，但被學校視為投訴，是家長參與類別中的第(5)組，屬層次(二)。本文有關的資料內容，主要根據案主事後口述，筆者則附以題問引導，由於案主不欲筆者直接接觸校方有關人士，以免影響校方對學生的印象，故筆者採較保守而謹慎的態度，只報導確信為事實之內容，並輔以從該校相關的文獻或其他跟進活動所獲得的客觀資料，此外，個案涉及有關語文科作文的評卷標準，較易流於主觀，這是本文的限制。

背景：

個案所涉中學，歷史悠久，1994年已成立家教會。

案主曾任教中學，並負責學生輔導工作，自言對學校的運作，十分熟識，平日雖經常以家長身份，出席及支持校方舉辦之典禮、校慶、家長日或籌款活動，卻從未就學校的行政及學生問題，向校方作任何投訴或反映。案主之妻，為全職家庭主婦，專注督導兒子學習，對老師極之尊敬和信任，對學校任何通告和指示，極之關注，亦無不言聽計從，案主夫婦，在兒子入學之初，即加入家教會為普通會員，案主之妻，並隨時願意投身參與學校事務，案主兒子就讀中一，為該校附屬小學畢業生，對學校有很強烈的歸屬感，更視教師為偶像，教學為崇高職業，小小年紀，已有志為師。

經過：

案主與校方的接觸，和學期終結，語文科試卷的評核有關。該校評核試卷的方法，屬集體評核制(mass marking system)，每級每科的試卷，由同一位教師負責批改。學生在學期完結當天，須回校領回經批改的試卷，而老師對試卷的內容和答案，再不作任何講解，不過，校方卻透過宣佈，明示學生，如對批改的結果和成績，有任何疑問，可於試卷派發當天的下午一時前，向校方提出。派發試卷當天，案主夫婦陪同學生回校，學生成績優良，考獲全級第二名，唯獨中英文兩科作文成績，未符理想，中文作文更被評定為不及格(附錄1)。

促成案主是次與學校接觸的原因有二：(1)學生剛在期考前的全級中英文比賽中獲獎，對作文正興緻勃勃，所以雖然滿意期考的整體表現，但對兩科作文的成績，感到迷惘和困惑，極欲明白文章錯誤之處。況且，自三歲開始入學以來，對第一次不合格的滋味，始終不易釋然，極渴望得到有關老師的解說，不過，由於兩位評卷員，非平日任教的老師，故不敢單獨貿然求見，希望家長陪同。(2)案主曾為輔導主任，認同學校與家長間之相互合作、溝通，對學生各方面的成長，包括心理和情緒等，至為重要，學生既有此意欲，於是希望透過實際行動，給與學生啟示，教導其日後尋求師長，作解決困擾的正當途徑。此外，案主之妻子在閱卷後，既對評卷有所困惑，亦憂慮該兩科成績對學生日後有不良的影響，故希望多了解校方評卷的標準，作日後督促學生的根據，加上校方提供了接觸的渠道，案主於是嘗試與學校接觸，拜會學生的班主任，並初步獲熱誠接待，先後安排與兩位閱卷老師見面。

案主自言：從事學生輔導工作多年，明白照顧老師尊嚴的技巧。所以，在與閱卷老師會談的過程中，並沒有透露本身的職業。此外，除獲「中作」閱卷老師同意，在講解作文科不合格時，容許學生在場聆聽外，其他時

間，因未得老師指示，所以著令兒子離場，而妻子則陪伴在側。

案主表示，中文科閱卷老師最初的立場是：「文章的好惡，屬老師主觀的判斷，學校自有準則，家長實不宜干預」，並向學生解釋作文不合格的原因有三：（一）文章過長，字數比一般考生所用的為多；（二）在描寫文的體裁中，不應加上論說的成份；（三）學生文章的內容，非如一般考生般，描述對考試的恐懼、試前的緊張或對臨渴掘井的懊悔等（試題及試卷見附錄1）。不過，其後閱卷老師主動提議交由該科主任覆改。整個會談過程，所用時間，少於十分鐘。重閱該文之後，科主任認為文章的結構和內容並無大問題，所給的分數，比原來的多十一分，取其平均數，該科獲調整六分，由不合格變為合格。

與英文科閱卷老師的見面，事隔一天。該老師不願親自向學生解釋，只以數分鐘時間匆匆向案主交待，並指出作文成績偏低的原因，是考生並未依試卷指示，以約一百五十字完成，並強調在公開作文考試中不依字數指示的嚴重性。此外，閱卷老師又申述集體評卷（mass marking）的公正和可靠性。由日前體會所得，案主提出可否模仿中文科覆改時，即被轉介致科主任處處理，

案主認為，與英文科主任的會談，算是十令愉快的經歷。老師安排了一個會談的房間，在約四十分鐘的會談中，老師耐心聆聽，清晰了解家長到校的目的及學生的困擾所在，由於科主任的友善，案主不自覺地與老師分享了一些評分的意見。對於案主所提意見，老師表示願意在科務會議上提出討論，更鼓勵案主，可將意見直接向校長反映，案主感其誠意，但當天事忙，且未經預約，於是答允日後再拜會校長，並提交建議。其後，英文科老師又參照中文科覆改的辦法，即時離場片刻，依學校原有之評卷標準，重改試卷，並將學生犯錯的地方，以紅線提示，使學生得知犯錯的地方。覆改之後，分數比前高十分，取其平均數，該科獲調整五分。

當英文科主任離場批改作文答題時，案主妻子則提議宜向覆改中作的中文科主任面謝，於是當英文科主任完成批改，事件了結之後，案主夫婦便提出請求，並獲安排在原地點與中文科主任見面。

可是，正值中文科主任出現，案主還未及言謝之際，校長突然怒氣沖沖，率領曾與案主見面的所有老師闖入，據案主說，校長指責家長到校干預學校的評分制度，「學生並無問題，問題只在於家長」又指責案主到校「投訴教師，為兒子爭取分數」，又謂如欲投訴老師，挑戰學校的評分制度，應直接與他本人接觸，不過，他強調：他會全力支持老師，也不會給家長佔用他太多時

間，如家長對學校不滿，可自行安排學生轉校。

案主表示，由於解釋不為校長接納，於是草草向中文科主任言謝之後，便告離校。離校之前，中文科主任及副校長先後主動向案主解釋，校長長期患病，性情暴躁剛烈，平日對老師尚且如此，當天不滿英文科主任因接見案主而未有出席校內某「惜別」儀式，才在案主面前有此表現，希望案主不要介懷。

翌日，案主接獲校方電話，得悉校長推翻兩科經調整後之分數，猶幸副校長暗中「幫忙」，瞞天過海，「中作」經調整之分數，才僥倖得以保留。案主以子弟仍在就讀，心存顧忌，對校方決定，也再不敢有任何異議或行動，惟因瞞騙了兒子整個過程，在輔導兒子的問題上，請教本文作者，並在閱讀本文後，同意將個案發表，作學術研究及討論。

跟進：

事件發生期間，筆者正欲從事一項有關香港學生語文能力的研究，因利乘便，曾將案主學生兩科的試題和答卷原文，塗去校名、學生姓名，影印各四至五份，隱瞞了事件始末，交由有豐富經驗之語文科老師批改，以了解案主對校方批卷的意見，可有理據支持，「投訴」是否合理。當中，中文科老師佔四位，而英文科老師佔五位。每科的老師當中，最少有兩位為該科現任中一至中三老師，而另兩位為該科現任中四至中七老師，且曾參與該科公開試的評卷工作，此等老師，其任教學校所用之作文評分標準，與案主兒子所屬之學校大致相同，計為100分滿分，50分合格，而一般分數的落墨，則在40分至80分之間，40分以下或80分以上俱屬少數，評卷結果，分數全高於原閱卷員，中作平均多22分，英作則平均多於20分，更有被評定已達公開會考之良好等級（附錄2），雖然，由於環境和資料所限，未能精密地照顧個別學校間學生的質素差異，但亦足反映案主的訪校和學生的困擾，並非毫無根據。

本文作者亦曾就案主學生經原任老師批改的中作科試卷，與一些大專講師和主修中文的老師討論，據指出，根據原任老師在試卷上所作的批改和評語、以及向案主及學生口述的理由，該卷被評為不合格，除老師本身的疏忽、誤以為考試的要求字數不可多於三百外，關鍵亦在於未能充份掌握和理解學生文中第三段末的兩病句：「這兩個程度測試，便是我們的知識和我們的心態」（一位覆卷的教師順應學生文意，將之改為「這兩個測試的項目，便是我們的學識和我們的心態」）

接著，筆者對該校家教會的情況，也作了一些調查。根據該校的校刊、通告及經與家教會幹事接觸後得

知，該校家教會成立的目的，在於加強家長與學校的溝通和改善學生的福利，故此其功能只在聯誼、溝通和家長資源的引入，如安排家長研討會、協助帶領學生活動、製作家長通訊、捐款及為學校籌款等，而並不處理個別家長與學校的事務或投訴。家教會的主席是家長，副主席有兩位，家長和教師各一，校長和上屆家教會主席為家教會顧問，每年9月至10月期間，家教會舉辦家長會員大會，選出主席及新幹事，在會員大會前，家長會主席及幹事，會與校長或老師幹事商討，決定來年度新任主席、幹事候選人的腹稿，及由家教會主辦之活動，待新任主席及新幹事選出後推行。家長幹事，既非校董會成員，對有關學校政策的制訂，亦不會直接參與。根據本文家長參與的定義，這類的家長參與，只屬於第一層次。而單就此層次而言，基於家長的時間、能力、投入感及對學校事務認識的不足，在家教會的組織和活動上，學校和教師還需要處於主導甚或支配的地位。筆者亦曾就以上模式，與前後共四位中學校長分享引證，發覺這模式普遍受學校接受，原因是學校對家長參與校政的能力和質素仍有保留，而這種模式，既可以取得家長資源，幫助學校發展，又可避免家長的干預。不過，亦有校長表示，縱使如此，由於家長教育程度、能力和時間的限制，學校為此而付出的行政代價也不少，因為教師幹事所需承擔的工作量十分繁重。

此外，筆者亦嘗試從學業成績看該學校的整體效能，發覺該校公開考試超卓，學生整體的學習效能優異。不過，據案主表示，功勞不應盡歸學校和老師，家長也著實落了不少功夫，就其兒子而言，其妻基本上是全職的補習媽媽，對學生的功課，一直都有跟進。而學生大部份的同班同學，情況也大致相同，部份家中更聘有不同科目的補習老師，他們對部份原任教師的教學態度，也非全部認同。本文作者曾接觸數位就讀該校的學生和家長，發覺雖然未必每位學生皆有全職的補習媽媽，但所述之補習情況，與案主所言，大致相同。

討論

這個案具體地引證了龐憶華(1994)、Ng (1998, 1999)對香港部份學校在SBM推行前，所認同與家長聯繫方式的描述，與Epstein (1995)期望在西方社會所落實的家長參與情況，還有好一段距離。個案中的學校，頗能代表龐、Ng 兩氏報導的學校情境：學校雖有家教會的成立，但從未有家長代表進入校董會，學校習慣了與家長「由上而下」的聯繫方式，「溝通」、「合作」的

意思，通常是指家長願意依從學校的指示，盡其基本義務，參與兒童在家裏的學習，學校歡迎家長透過家教會參與學生的課餘活動、義務工作、贊助、捐款、或聯誼活動，而對個別家長和校方作單軌性或雙軌性的溝通(第1組別)，問題還不太大，但卻不習慣接受家長投訴或其他形式的校政干預(第5組別)，而且，當感到尊嚴受到威脅時，也不排除會訴諸於權威，予以否定。至於家長方面，正如Ng (1998, 1999)和陳錦洲等(1993)所言，作為家教會幹事的，許多時固然會受制於個人的時間和客觀環境，顯得力不從心，而他們最關心的，也只是子弟的學業成績，對校政決策的參與，不見得有很大的意欲和堅持，個案中的案主，甚至在決定是否進一步投訴時，也心存顧忌，有所保留。這正是推行SBM時的困難、或家校雙方應該努力的方向所在：如何才可以建立家校互信的伙伴關係，作為提升家長參與校政決策的基礎？畢竟，雙方的互信，是不能單憑政府強制學校成立家教會便可達致的。只有形式而缺乏互信的家教會，亦無助於提升學校管理的質素。

要建立家校雙方的互信，在整體政策上，我們或需要在全面開展家長參與校政之前，先引入「家長教育」的概念，作為支援的基礎，以提升家長的質素和參與校政決策的能力，使能建立校方對家長的信心。學校對家長缺乏信心，其實是懷疑家長對教育的認識和能力，擔心家長參與校政，只會對學校或教育專業，做成干預，影響學校運作和教學效能。而事實上，這些憂慮，也不無道理，所以，當香港社會正逐步邁向家長參與校政的同時，一套長遠而具體的「家長教育」計劃，以增強學校對家長的信心，實有必要。「家長教育」的目的，在於協助提升家長對本身角色的認識和與子女溝通的技巧，及加強家長對學校教育概念、現況和如何與學校合作、參與決策等的了解。所以，無論如何，家長教育都應該是家校合作的基礎，值得社會投放資源。

以上談政策層面。當然，在學校方面，也應有相應的發展。學校除需要持續提升教師對教育專業的認知，使能有效行使專家權(expertise power)的領導外，更需要如Sullivan(1998)所言，在處理「家長參與」的問題上，配合一套週詳而完善的校本方案和策略。除了成立家教會加強第一層次的家長參與外，對有關第二層次，如建立渠道，吸納意見、回饋；如處理家長投訴方面的態度、機制和技巧等，也不容忽視，因為妥善處理家長的投訴，實有助鞏固家長參與的層次，作進一步提升的基礎，而容納家教會作家長投訴的橋樑，亦有被考慮的需要。這個個案，令人感到遺憾的地方，是個案中的學校，原已有一套解決評分偏差的機制，可惜由於校長的

介入，及對校內的微觀政治，沒有充份的了解和掌握，這機制最終沒有發揮其功能，將家長「投訴」這一危機(Crisis)，轉化成具前瞻性的機會(Opportunity)，結果，這個案反映了一個「雙輸」的例子，也給了我們重要的啟示。正如 Boutte and others(1992)所指出，案主固然被學校(校長)認為麻煩的製造者，同樣地，校方也迴避了學校一些有待解決的問題，如評卷的制度及水準的監察等。個案發生後，案主表示日後會避免與學校再作任何接觸，案主之妻子，對學校以至整個教育行業，開始產生了負面的看法，也修正了進一步參與家校活動的意圖。所以，不善的投訴處理，除妨礙家長參與第二層次的開展外，更會抵消過往學校的努力，動搖第一層次的基礎。

在個案中，有關 Ball (1987) 和 Goodson and Marsh (1996)的校內微型政治觀點，的確是有跡可尋，值得進一步作為日後教育研究的方向，以幫助提升學校的教育效能。個案顯示了校長和家長間、老師和老師間對學校-家庭關係上不同的理解，甚或評分標準和最後決定權的矛盾等。在事件中，個別老師固然在處理家長的問題上，頗為得體，而且也能接受家長參與更高的層次，其中尤以英文科主任為然，可惜，這種態度，在校長和老師間並未一致，譬如說，案主對英作原來評卷老師的態度頗有微言，懷疑是她不接受家長到訪，認為案主挑戰校方評分老師的權威，才知會校長。所以，隨著時代的發展和需要，學校方面，有需要謀求建立校長老師們整體對家校合作的共識，而處理家長投訴、達致合理平衡及建立伙伴關係等技巧，亦勢將成為校長、教師教育專業發展中不可缺少的部份。

個案也引證了 Sullivan(1998)所言，校長的能力、魄力和意向，對家長參與的重要性，SBM 的推行，所引發出的學校改革相當大，要求的是新的領導模式和學校文化。對校長來說，是新的考驗和挑戰。可惜，現時香港沒有一套完整的職前或在職的校長培訓課程，對校長既沒有嚴謹的監察，也沒有具體學理上的支援。香港現行校長培訓的模式，是依賴校長憑藉過往實務性的工作經驗，附以個人自發自覺的努力，從事全校的行政管理，這種模式，是否仍足夠應付變革、足夠保證學校管理的質素？校長是否也需如教師一樣，參與較正規的培訓和複修課程？而怎樣的行政課程，才可以配合社會和校長的需要，應該是值得思考和重視的問題。

從輔導的角度去看，個案中的學生是受到忽略的。無論是學校或家長，都沒有認真地處理他的問題，校方

既沒有聆聽他對作文考試結果的感受，家長也沒有向他交代整件事的經過，家長和學校關係不佳、合作不成的後果，最大的受害者，還是學生。可以說，從輔導角度而言，對那位學生來說，這個案還有待跟進。

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附錄 1

由於是次促成案主與學校的接觸，由兩科作文的批改引起，為方便討論，特先將兩篇的作文試卷及答題全文，包括原有之錯別字和標點，附錄於後：

試卷（中文作文）

年級：中一

時間：一小時

考生須知：

1. 下列三題，選擇一題。
2. 不用抄題，但必須注明題號。
3. 字數不得少於三百字。（標點符號包括在內）
4. 字體務須端正。

試題：

- （一）考試前的晚上
- （二）我最喜歡的卡通人物
- （三）老師，謝謝您！

答題

試題號數：（一）

考試，對很多同學來說，都是一段很重要的時間。面對著明天的考試，今晚我的心情倍加緊張。

明天便要考試了，我一早起床便開始努力溫習，為考試作出最充分的準備。直至晚上，我還一直沒有休息過。突然，鬧鐘唱起歌來，原來已經晚上十時正了。媽媽給我蓋好了被子，關了燈，輕輕地關了門，只剩下我一個人人在黑暗中輾轉翻側，不能入睡。

我不是第一次考試，為什麼會如此緊張呢？每次考試前夕，我總會得到很多啟示。今晚，我似乎感覺到，考試不過是像一個自我挑戰罷了。有時，我非常認真地溫習，所得出來的結果只是大意，不小心的錯誤，數不清數。我覺得考試的作用不是要你和別人互比雌雄，只是要你看看自己的程度去到那裏。這兩個程度測試，便是我們的知識和我們的心態。

在知識方面，無可否認，我們的考試範圍太多在課本裏，因此我們要平時上課留心聽講，下課後溫習一次，有空可在坐車或小息時背出重點，看看自己對課文的理解。那麼，考試前夕便不需要絞盡腦汁去想出「背書速成法」，也不需「臨渴掘井」了。

在心態方面，我覺得，對考試應有的態度是樂觀和有抱有信心。因為，經驗告訴我，過份緊張的心情只會把記憶和理智嚇跑，使人覺得考試好像是一隻兇猛的獅子在威迫你，考出來的成績自然人見人恨。我們也應對自己充滿信心和希望，才不會胡思亂想，可以輕鬆過渡考試。

這晚，主意多多的我終於想出一個理性的答案來解開牢牢繫在我心中的擔憂。對，我既然已溫熟了考試範圍，已經有能力拿到高的分數，為什麼還要害怕考試呢？即使今次我得不到全級第一，我也不會耿耿於懷，因為，我已付出了我一切的努力，也對考試有了一個正確的態度。

我終於想通了，今年考試前夕所得的啟示，該是歷屆以來的冠軍吧！我想著想著，忽然房間的景象模糊了，變成了一隻隻活潑可愛的小綿羊……

分數：45（不合格）

閱卷員評語：

1. 在「在知識方面…」一段旁邊，閱卷員寫著：「這不是文章的重點」。
2. 在「在心態方面…」一段旁邊，閱卷員寫著：「這只是學生對考試的態度！不是文章的重點」。

試卷 (英文)

F.1 English Composition

Write on one of the following in about 150 words. Please write on alternate lines.

1. write a letter to a friend telling him/her about your plans for the coming summer holidays. (There is no need to put in the address in your letter.)
2. An unforgettable experience.
3. You have to talk to your classmates about some good activities in your school and encourage them to join them. write your speech.
4. a day in the life of a fireman.

答題

2. An unforgettable experience

Last night, my cousin came to my house to spend his holiday with me. He suddenly caught sight of a small, dull photo-frame which contained a photo of a boy in it. He asked me who the boy was and where the photo was taken. I blushed. It was my most unforgettable experience in all my life.

Two years ago, when I was studying in xxx Primary School as a Primary Five student, I used to be a very naughty boy. I always make foolish tricks on my classmates to amuse myself. My classmates, however, never mind about them, because they thought they were only actions which represented friendliness.

One of my best friend was called Keith. He was a hardworking and filial boy, and was always respected by both teachers and students. I was very proud to be his friend. We were very alike, and also with similar hobbies and Therefore, we met together every day. We always shared our food and games with each other. We were given two nicknames. Keith's nickname was 'body' and mine was 'shadow'.

The twentyfourth of November was Keith's birthday. Every time when his birthday came, I would give him a gigantic hug together with a few packs of snacks. Sometimes, I would also stuck a huge birthday-card on his forehead. I laughed heartily when I saw him giggle. We were both very contented to have such a nice friend.

This year was very special. On the day of Keith's birth, I acted strangely. I pretended to be angry of him. I did not talk or eat to him, nor smile at him. Instead, I just played with the other classmates, leaving him alone in the farthest corner of the playground. That afternoon, as the dismal-bell rang, he went home, feeling unusually quiet and upset. I, at the other side of the road, ran home quickly, and then put on a black cloak which covered up my whole body and made me look like a magician. After that, I took a present from the table, and left home again.

I hurried to Keith's house. By the time I got there, I was already worn out with the effort. I rang the bell. Keith opened the door. He did not recognize that it was me. I told him that I was a postman. Somebody had wanted to give him a present. I required him to open it at once. In excitement, Keith unwrapped the parcel. Out ran a black balloon with a jaw-bone printed on it. Keith was very frightened. He screamed. Two streams of tears jumped out of his eyes. Then I took off my cloak and quickly took a photo of him. Full of surprise and relief, he glanced at me. An expression of joy crept into his face, making it look radiant. We both laughed merrily. Then I went into his house to join his birthday party. Birthday was a happy time after all.

My cousin's eyes opened wide as I told him all about it. He could not believe me. He was also very startled when I acted scarily during my speech. He was such a nice, unforgettable and merry experience! (529 words)

分數：55

閱卷員評語：只在第二段 studying 及 mind 兩字之下畫上紅線，並在試題末頁寫著 Follow instructions, Too long!

附錄 2

覆卷老師的意見如下：

中文作文

文憑教師(1)

分數: 69/ 100

評語: 內容有些不明所指，有犯駁的地方。
但能運用修辭手法，令句子生動活潑。
知識和心態能用「程度」來形容嗎？

文憑教師(2)

分數: 65/ 100

評語: 內容方面言之有物，概括地說明了考生試前應有的態度及有效的準備方法。寫作技巧方面，以事抒情方法運用恰當，各段重心清晰明確，前後呼應手法更使全文結構完整。

學位教師(1)

分數: 70/ 100

評語: 內心獨白，富想象！寫來真摯！文句仍待改善！

學位教師(2)

分數: 65/100

評語: 無

英文作文

CM Teacher (1)

Marks: 80/ 100

Remarks: I have never come across a F. 1 student who can express himself so well in my years of teaching! Well done!

CM Teacher(2)

Marks: 75/100 (Style: 8/10; Content: 15/20; Accuracy: 52/70)

Remarks: Good!

GM Teacher (1)

Marks: 68/100 (Accuracy: 20/50; Content: 30/40; Style: 8/10)

Remarks: This can be regarded as a good essay even at S.5 level judged by its content and range of vocabulary. I use the marking scheme normally for S.5 students to mark it. Because of its length, it is normal that there are quite a number of grammatical errors.

GM Teacher (2)

Marks: 78/100 (Accuracy: 40; Content: 38)

Remarks: Nil

GM Teacher(3)

Marks: 75/100 (Accuracy: 39; Content: 36)

Remarks: A-

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Education for New Arrivals and Multicultural Teacher Education in Hong Kong

Celeste Y.M. YUEN

The Hong Kong Institute of Education

Hong Kong classrooms are populated by a significant number of culturally diverse students, most predominantly newly arrived students (NAS) from Mainland China. These NAS come to school with the same hopes and aspirations as their Hong Kong counterparts and with a wide range of abilities. The huge diversity presents demands on today's Hong Kong teachers. Too often, the NAS are failed by the educational system because their perceived needs are not being addressed. This essay serves as an exploratory study on teachers' pedagogical effectiveness in response to the challenges of educating the NAS in Hong Kong schools. It draws special reference to the lessons learned from a one-year professional teacher support pilot project for the education of the NAS. Implications are drawn to provide support for the need and value of the integration of the cultural relevant elements in continuous teacher education programmes.

香港的新移民教育及多元文化教師培訓

香港學校收納了不少文化多元的學生，他們多是內地新來港的學生。他們擁有不同的能力，然而，他們跟香港本土學生一樣對學校抱有相同的夢想與素求。他們本身的多元性為今日的香港老師帶來了不少的要求。很多時，他們的學業失敗是因為本港教育制度不能照顧他們的學習需要而致。本文是一個為期一年的探索式先導計畫，研究專着於香港老師回應新來港學生教育的挑戰的教學效能。由香港優質教育基金贊助，名為「新來港學童教育專業支援計畫」。本文嚴結先導計畫成果，並把所得的啟示作為支持在教師持續教育課程中加入文化適切元素的需要和價值。

Introduction

Although Hong Kong is regarded as a melting pot of western and eastern cultures, teaching students with diverse cultural backgrounds has not been at all high on the teacher education agenda. Since her handover to Mainland China in 1997, Hong Kong has witnessed a remarkable increase in the number of NAS from the Mainland in her schools. As elsewhere, educating immigrant children demands that schools embrace cultural and pedagogical change. In Hong Kong, education for the NAS and the cross border students is now becoming a topical issue in the media. Because many NAS are voluntary immigrants, in that they are Mainland born children of Hong Kong people, they are entitled to receive

education in Hong Kong. As long as the current socio-political conditions prevail, the Hong Kong government will have to face the challenge of managing the needs of the NAS. As a consequence, the prevailing school culture is bound to be challenged by diverse NAS backgrounds. The sudden influx of mainland students in Hong Kong has caused a wide range of responses from Hong Kong teachers. This article first looks into the educational needs of the NAS. Secondly, it discusses the general educational measures regarding the educational needs of the NAS. Thirdly, it draws reference to the lessons learned from the Quality Education Fund sponsored pilot project entitled 'Professional Support Scheme for the Education of the Newly Arrived Children from the Mainland'. Finally, it highlights a way forward in promoting multicultural teacher education in Hong Kong.

Background of the Newly Arrived Students (NAS) from Mainland China

Since 1995, there has been on average 150 Mainland Chinese granted the right of abode in Hong Kong each day, and among them 45 are of school age. According to the Statistics Section (Hong Kong Education Department, 2000, p.10), in 1999 about 17,518 NAS were admitted to primary schools, 2,614 to secondary schools and 9,341 to special schools. Because of the right of abode issue, many NAS in Hong Kong are living in a "pseudo-single parent" family situation. A typical situation is that the mother of the family is waiting in the Mainland for a single visa to join them in Hong Kong. Data also indicates that NAS families are mainly clustered in Eastern Hong Kong, Sham Shui Po and Kwun Tong of Kowloon and the New Territories where many NAS are living with a working father. In the primary school sector about 84.9% of NAS are aged between 12 and 16, while in the secondary sector, about 27.4% of NAS are also over aged (Hong Kong Education Department, 2000, p.57).

The Problem

In his study, Ogbu (1991) points out that the adaptability of immigrants and involuntary minorities are varied. He found that the former is bound to receive more family and peer pressure to enhance school success while the latter seems to be relatively relaxed about academic achievements. Rong and Preissle (1998) observe that aspects of educational attainment are linked with the linguistic status of migrant children. In Hong Kong, the NAS are like migrant children elsewhere (Reynolds, 1989) in that they face the difficulties of adjusting to the academic, social and psycho-emotional demands.

Challenges of the NAS

Generally, those NAS who come from poor rural regions do less well academically in all subjects than those from more developed regions. They therefore require more input from the receiving schools. Because most NAS do not have any academic and linguistic preparation before joining Hong Kong schools they have difficulties in adjusting to the Hong Kong curriculum, especially in their first year of arrival. One of the basic challenges for the NAS in schooling in Hong Kong is

the language barrier. In Mainland schools, the medium of instruction is Putonghua whereas in Hong Kong it is the Cantonese dialect. Moreover, the English curriculum is generally found to be too hard for the NAS. Many NAS begin to learn English at upper primary levels whereas Hong Kong-born students begin to learn English from their first day of schooling. For some NAS in the upper primary forms, they even have difficulties in recognizing the alphabet. The deficiency of their English learning is so great that some teachers believe that even with after-school tutorials this would not be sufficiently rectified. Owing to their relatively lower standard of English they are normally arranged to study in classes two years' behind their Hong Kong classmates.

This over-age "down-graded" placement, especially in primary schooling, is a major source of embarrassment to many NAS, and makes their transition even more difficult, especially for those who are struggling with their emotions of missing mainland family members and peers. At the Hong Kong-NAS student interface, the rapidly increasing admission of the NAS is also challenging the socio-economic make up of the student population as a whole, and consequently, has led to a greater awareness of the intra-racial differences between the Hong Kong and Mainland students. Chan ((1998) notes that social clumsiness or social withdrawn behaviours are found in the NAS. As many NAS do not speak Cantonese and their Hong Kong counterparts speak mainly Cantonese, communication can be an obstacle for friendship building.

Educational performances of the NAS

Unlike the findings from earlier studies of the NAS that show they are generally more passive in schooling, the findings of case studies of Yuen et al. (2000) have suggested that such passivity is less clear cut. These concluded that most NAS in 8 target schools were said to have high motivation and good self-discipline in their learning. Quite a few of them even obtained outstanding results after a short period of schooling in Hong Kong. Teachers have also pointed out that the NAS are more rule abiding and will more often "stick to teachers' instruction" than their Hong Kong peers. On the other hand, teachers noted that certain activities in Physical Education lessons were not supported by over-age arrivals because they felt embarrassed to perform the activities. They were inappropriate for their age group.

Despite their difficulties in English, many of the NAS do well in Chinese Language and Mathematics, and even find

both subjects relatively simple. It is not uncommon to find that they score much higher in their examinations than their Hong Kong peers (Yuen et al., 2000).

Educational Provisions for the NAS in Hong Kong Schools

Teachers' personal perceptions of the ability of migrant children and their professional competence to address their educational needs have direct influence on the effectiveness of classroom pedagogy (Wiggins and Follo, 1999; Marshall, 1998; Banks, 1997; Boyle-Baise and Sleeter, 2000). In Hong Kong, the government does not have a policy towards pedagogical change to cater for the needs of the NAS. Educational related provision and suggestions provide only the minimum of measures, and even these only geared to alleviate the short-term problems of educating the NAS. Regarding the language barrier, for example, a peer support scheme is recommended to help the NAS master oral Cantonese (Circular Memorandum NO. 426/99, Education Department). A review of this educational policy and provision has revealed that attention was concentrated primarily on providing invisible services such as dollars for the schools with large NAS intakes and non-governmental organisations. Since April 2000, the School-Based Support Scheme Grant for the NAS has been raised from HK\$2,000 to HK\$2,720 per head at primary 1 to 6 levels and from HK\$ 3,300 to HK\$4,035 per head at secondary 1 to 7 levels. This grant has now been extended to include non-Chinese speaking children and returnees. Although the grant is given to target schools for curriculum tailoring, references, teaching materials and for other activities, it is up to individual schools to make the final decision for the use of the grant. Whether the grant is generally being effectively used to improve the school-based professional support for the education of the NAS is therefore unknown and unenforceable. These provisions will not make much difference if, for example, the subsidy is used just for the purchase of radio cassette recorders for the NAS as in the case in some schools. The lack of policy in the use of the grant reflects the lack of direction in supporting NAS education. It also reflects the short sightedness of Hong Kong's educational policy.

Another illustration of this lack of vision and direction is the 60-hour Induction (for age 6-15) run by the Education

Department and the 60-hour English Extension Programmes for the NAS (age 9-15) run by Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). With government subsidies, counselling programmes for personal and social development are provided by several NGOs. For example, the Caritas runs an "Adaptation Curriculum" programme to the NAS. However these measures and provisions are merely paying lip service to the problem and do not indicate in any sense that the government is very keen to uplift in the long term the pedagogical practices in schools to enhance quality learning of both Hong Kong children and the NAS.

Challenges and Needs of the Teachers

To many practicing teachers in Hong Kong, given the new experience of educating the NAS in schools and their limited knowledge of the Mainland education system, this challenge is as demanding as for prospective intercultural teachers anywhere. When Hong Kong teachers are thrust into a "mixed Hong Kong-NAS school culture" classroom they become more aware of the pedagogical issues such as personal attitudes, the need of a vision for NAS education and teaching techniques that they need to work out.

At the teacher-NAS interface, teachers struggle very hard with the mixed-ability classroom. Findings, for instance, indicate that some teachers have to repeatedly teach chapter one for the new intakes whilst teaching a different chapter for the rest of the class at the same time (Yuen et al, 2000). It has also been noted that home-school collaboration in schools with a high proportion of NAS is at risk. According to the survey conducted by the Education Department, most NAS are from working class families (Education Department, 2000). Parent-teacher communication is difficult as many parents work and are unreachable. Quite a few of the NAS experience a dysfunctional family life, with one parent often living away, and some are generally in lack of quality family care in Hong Kong. Homework supervision is often inadequate and calls for serious remedial attention. Moreover, parental involvement in schooling is limited by the children's frequent visits to their mainland family and relatives during the weekends and holiday breaks. These frequent mainland visits not only contribute to the retardation of their progress, but also to the preservation of their own

ways of thinking. This, to some extent, mitigates against any attempts at cultural integration. Given the teachers' limited understanding of the mainland culture, Hong Kong teachers find it difficult, for example, to convey the school expectation of quality homework submission to the NAS parents who have little awareness of its importance.

Needs for Providing Professional Support for Serving Teachers

Although the government encourages the schools to use NAS grants to tailor the curriculum for their needs, little is known about the extent to which schools have taken this seriously. When discussing the education for diverse ethnic student groups, Banks (1997) highlights that the multicultural curriculum should aim to develop all students' personal and social potentials and feed them with sufficient knowledge and understanding of others' perspectives. Headley-Howell (1997), after surveying the literature on the challenges faced by prospective teachers with zero diversity experience in the multicultural classroom, concluded that they experience "culture shock", and subsequently exhibit elements of "dysconscious racism" (p.21). They adopt the dominant culture unreflectively and fail to value other cultures.

Filling the Gap - The Pilot Project Launched

To offer school-based and practice-oriented professional support to serving teachers, a project entitled "Professional Support Scheme for the Education of Newly Arrived Children from the Mainland" was launched in August 2000. This one-year pilot project was based on the findings of the Needs Analysis of the NAS education conducted by Yuen et al. in 2000.

The philosophical framework

This pilot project was by nature practice-oriented and aimed at offering school-based support to all the teachers from six schools. The design and implementation of the professional support scheme was largely adapted from Banks' (1997) model of multicultural teacher education. The scheme

consisted of seminars, workshops, and an exchange programme of school visits with schools in Mainland China. It aimed to: a) address the pedagogical issues; b) facilitate project teachers to rethink about their day-to-day classroom practices in relation to educating all students, including the NAS effectively; c) provide site-based professional knowledge, skills and attitudes; and d) introduce NAS education related literature and education resources.

The target schools

Each of the six project schools involved had a NAS population proportion of more than 30 percent, each of whom had typically been in Hong Kong for less than three years. Because of such ethnic, cultural and educational differences, it is a serious educational issue to tailor the existing school curriculum, teaching strategies, materials and assessments. The schools have a genuine need for the provision of professional support to both the teachers and the NAS, (Yuen, 2001). All participating schools throughout the project were encouraged to design their own policies in managing the needs of the NAS at the school level. As a result, the six schools have responded to the challenge of educating the NAS very differently.

The NAS of the six project schools all share the following characteristics: (1) they are generally older than their equivalent local counterparts, (2) they are generally from working class families, (3) there is low parental involvement, (4) many experience a dysfunctional family life with one parent living away, (5) there is a lack of peer support and, (6) they are limited in English language acquisition.

Mode of enquiry

Given the fact that schools learn better within their own contexts when learning actually informs practice, this professional support scheme employed a case study approach to offer a hands-on school-based teacher development program. This project was based on an institute-school partnership, with an emphasis on mutual understanding, establishing professional rapport and support. Because schools are the central concerns of any effective education reform, teaching personnel should therefore have the right to voice out their concerns, and more importantly, own the reform and demonstrate their response in practice. The Institute-School Teacher Education Program for teacher continuous education

was proposed by the project team and validated by individual project schools. The program provided serving teachers with skills in curriculum tailoring, small-group instructions, assessment, pastoral care skills and the use of NAS education resources. To honor the partnership initiative and to promote a wider social awareness of the educational needs of the NAS, a press conference followed by the contract signing ceremony was held in October, 2000. All school heads/deputy heads together with their colleagues attended. The program encouraged active participation and involvement of teachers from the project schools. The project team was obliged to provide not less than five on-site seminars and workshops for each school within the whole project year, from 2000 to 2001. Schools were also required to produce some evidence of curriculum tailoring in their teaching to assist the project team to conduct evaluation exercises throughout.

Needs analysis and program evaluation questionnaires were distributed before, during and after the whole project. A Likert scale was added to the instrumentation to allow for some pre and post project measuring of differences. School-based interviews were also conducted with the English, Chinese and General Studies' panels of each school.

Findings: Early Lessons Learned From The Six Project Schools

Data on the case schools was analysed according to the seven areas of Banks' framework of total school environment (1997). On school policy: there was no evidence, in their mission statements, to show that the case schools emphasized the importance of NAS education, except School 6. On assessing and testing procedures: data indicated that it was a common practice of 2 case schools to tailor worksheet, test/examinations for meeting the needs of the NAS. However, no evidence shows that they were using culturally fair and just assessment approaches. On teaching methods and materials: teachers of Schools 3 and 6 showed more frequency in adopting some non-traditional teaching methods. Teachers in other project schools tended to adopt the traditional teacher-centered instructions. Except for school 6, teachers showed low percentages on using teaching materials related to the NAS. On pastoral care: Schools 2 and 3 with sizeable numbers of NAS did emphasise pastoral care whereas other schools generally placed more emphasis on the academic aspect of

the NAS. On attitudes and expectations of the school staff: results showed a diversity within each school, some staff remaining negative while others become more positive. On parental involvement: all six schools did not have enough contacts with NAS parents. Among the six schools, only schools 2 and 4 reported to have launched special programmes for NAS parents. On formalized course of study: in order to assist them to catch up with Hong Kong curriculum, one-sided attention was given to offer extra academic tutoring to the NAS.

Analysis and Discussion

Policy analysis

Except school 6, all schools adopted non-multicultural policies and had no focus on diversity. The issue of managing the needs of the NAS was not addressed. They made no policy response to the challenges of educating the NAS. They either treated this challenge as one of the many ad hoc problems or adopted a "take it for granted" approach expecting the problem to solve itself as time went by. Some schools with large NAS intake did not make any obvious policy modification in the area of medium of instruction. There was no policy statement that provided evidence of managing the language switch problem. Putonghua, for example, has not yet been identified as a key to relate the NAS background to school learning in Hong Kong. Schools usually joined "An Adaptation Curriculum" provided by the Education Department to enable the NAS to brush up their English. This provision, however, as already noted, is short term and does not really address the deep-rooted issues in teaching English in an intercultural setting.

Hong Kong schools that traditionally had low proportions of immigrant students, and now admit considerable numbers of the NAS, have failed generally to respond to the multicultural issues in educating students with diverse ethnic backgrounds. If the school policies continue to be Hong Kong-centric and mono-cultural, the problem of mismatched schooling will increasingly manifest itself in the course of time and become one of the biggest obstacles in the enhancement of school effectiveness and improvement. There is a shared need of providing professional support at the management level. The lack of policy support at the school level suggests the following: passive multicultural education,

poor multicultural teacher awareness and poor multicultural curriculum. It also suggests that Hong Kong schools in general are in lack of a collective understanding and acceptable interpretation of the definition of multiculturalism, and therefore, lack the sense of policy responsibility.

The Pedagogical process

Regarding the appropriateness of content, instruction and assessment, results show that there is a great need to integrate the cultural background, experience and learning styles of the NAS in classroom teaching. Despite the fact that teachers acknowledged the diverse needs of the NAS most of them remained faithful to a conventional, 'one size for all' teaching approach. One teacher (School 3) claimed that "I have employed the 'one to many' teaching approach for more than twenty years, it is the most effective method, and it does not need to be changed". Ironically, one of the main reasons for the teachers of School 3 to adopt the conventional teaching strategies was to enhance the "efficiency" in completing the syllabus.

Discrepancies between teachers' perception of the mismatch of the curriculum for the NAS and their attempts to tailor the curriculum were quite common among the teachers interviewed. Although findings indicated that more than 65 per cent of teachers in each of the schools identified a mismatch between the school curriculum and needs of the NAS, they often regarded curriculum tailoring as infeasible in their teaching. Nearly all teachers interviewed highlighted that the teaching of English is one of the big problems to both the English teachers and the NAS.

The use of relevant NAS cultural teaching materials appears to have escaped most teachers' serious attention. Despite their recognition of having little understanding of the mainland curriculum, very few of the teachers interviewed had attempted to consult mainland textbooks, teaching aids and references.

A review of the perceived curriculum mismatch and actual tailoring frequency in the six schools indicated that there was a common discrepancy between the two. According to the data, the majority of the six schools had identified the problem of mismatch but, apart from School 4, the majority of teachers in the other schools had not tried to modify their approach to meet the needs of the NAS, suggesting that they are serving as gatekeepers blocking the path for any new reform ideas.

The results show that a tension between knowing and doing exists. The majority of teachers interviewed acknowledged the fact that the subject contents and approaches of classroom learning had failed to facilitate the effective learning of the NAS, especially in English. Teachers also indicated that many NAS experienced curriculum mismatch, yet, owing to time constraints and other priorities, meeting the needs of the NAS in terms of curriculum tailoring has not been taken on board effectively. Findings indicate that, in the absence of relevant personal knowledge of the mainland education system, and inadequate professional preparation training and school-based support, individual teachers did have a very diverse view on the meaning of educating the NAS. These can be categorized as follows:

Do Nothing. Quite a few were inclined to treat/understand the NAS as the same as the local students and expected them to fulfil the same systemic requirements. In their view it was the responsibility of the NAS themselves to integrate into Hong Kong school culture and not the other way round. Mother-tongue teaching was not seen as one of the teachers' concerns and hence was never mentioned by the project school teachers. Evidently, they had expended very little effort to tailor and change their instructional strategies and employed no specific teaching strategies and materials. In so doing they felt that this would minimize discrimination and any extra work. The under-achievement of the NAS was understood in terms of their lack of ability rather than because of other possible systemic obstacles. This confirms that teachers' personal aspirations and understanding of multicultural education mediates the effect on the quality of learning.

Act Passively. Other teachers are similar in that they will not own the responsibility to take the initiative to accommodate the needs of the new arrivals. Only when there is an external force to make some pedagogical changes do they do so, otherwise, they just follow their own usual practice. Some teachers on the one hand assumed that after the transitional period, some NAS were able to catch up with the curriculum during the course of schooling. On the other hand, some of the teachers who experienced less positive teaching feedback from the NAS would lower their expectations on them.

Act actively without personal commitment. This is quite common among those teachers teaching in a large classroom with 50% or more NAS. Given the reality that most students

are from the Mainland and teachers are accountable to students' academic success, teachers respond to their needs more conscientiously. For example, in terms of the medium of instruction teachers might slow down their speed and give some extra explanation. However, teachers do not attempt to change their own perspective of teaching and education in facilitating the learning that is to take place. The NAS are expected to make their own way to fit into teachers' teaching approach and fulfil teachers' expectations.

Act actively with sense of commitment. Although this group belongs to the minority, some Hong Kong teachers do share the vision and mission to promote educational equity and equality. Creative learning activities and tailor made curricula are provided to motivate the NAS to learn. For example, teachers are willing to sacrifice personal free time to provide extra school tuitions for the NAS, contact their parents and be supportive in their needs. They also share the joy and achievement in promoting a positive and encouraging learning atmosphere for new arrivals.

Although individual differences exist among the teachers in the six project schools, not much self-reflective practices were reported. Teachers by large had adopted a very passive role in encouraging the NAS to be active members of the school. They are generally in lack of a perspective on multicultural education and fail to recognize their roles in educating the NAS. Very few are willing to adapt their curriculum and/or teaching strategies to take into account of different Hong Kong and Mainland cultures. Yet they are the gatekeepers of implementing multicultural curriculum in schools.

Parental involvement.

Quite a portion of the NAS families comes from low socio-economic backgrounds. None of the project schools are situated in a middle-upper class area. Three schools are situated in the inner city, hence they are likely to receive the NAS from the neighborhood underclass areas. Too often they are living with one parent or other relatives. For the newly arrived parents, their understanding of the society is limited, and it is doubtful that they would at present play an active part in helping to fulfill their children's socio-psychological and educational needs. According to the data, some of the NAS' academic performance lagged behind their classmates because of the lack of parental support at home. Some teachers regarded the NAS parents as obstacles rather than potential

assistance to NAS education. Findings also indicated that the usual challenge was due to insufficient and ineffective communication between teachers and schools. As English is always one of the main academic concerns for the teachers, and this is the weakest subject for which their parents are least able to offer help, the tension for the schools to get additional resource to help NAS learn English remains.

Parent education is one of the key issues in schools with large numbers of NAS. Teachers with frequent NAS contact were in urgent need to acquire skills in order to work collaboratively with parents. Understanding the needs and strengths of these parents could be a potential asset to the schools.

Teacher Education For The NAS in Perspective - The Way Ahead.

According to the preliminary data of the project, many NAS did not prosper in the decentralized school system. There are several reasons. An analysis of the cultural-contextual interactive teaching approach shows that Hong Kong teachers struggle to balance the temptation of assimilating the NAS into a quick Hong Kongization and thus be loyal to their own examination-oriented teaching mission, and provide culturally relevant pedagogical practices. This is especially so when they are under what may be competing pressures from colleagues, principals and examination results, with effective and adaptive curriculum and teaching tailoring.

Because schools have the autonomy to screen out what is to be done in terms of managing the educational needs of the NAS, they at the same time serve as the gatekeepers to respond to their needs. The lesson learned from the six project schools is that, at this beginning stage, schools tend to choose a passive non-multicultural approach to educate the NAS. The desire either to assimilate them or not to recognize their cultural needs can be seen as a systematic form of education and social oppression (Fraser, 1998).

Teacher development and attitude change is a life long process. Positive attitudes of teachers do not often translate into appropriate services for the immigrant children. Cultural awareness and vision of multicultural education does not develop naturally through cultural immersion programmes. Personal commitment to promote quality teaching for diverse student population demands ongoing reflection (Wiggins and

Follo, 1999). Friesen *et al.* (1995) point out that changes cannot be imposed on teachers from outside. Typical reactions to outside suggestions for multicultural or culturally-sensitive programming often include: “we don’t need that here” (p. 211). Continuous school-based teacher education is thus important to alert frontline teachers of the needs of students. This project identifies several ways forward in making the school-based teacher continuing education meaningful and successful, the following strategies are suggested:

Training target

Training for the gatekeepers is the-key for successful teacher continuing education. At the school-based level, conflicts may result from diversity between administrators and teachers (Cheng and Chan, 2000). Given the scarcity of human resource in schools and recognition of other school priorities, training for the subject panels should be the first step. Many curricular issues are directly involved in curriculum tailoring, teaching approach and assessment tailoring. Because the subject panels have a responsibility to manage the overall progress of the subject and the need of students, their support and understanding of the skills and knowledge is crucial.

Program contents

Drawing from the study, it is suggested that a school-based teacher continuing education should adopt a three-fronted approach: cognitive-behavioral-affective. Because knowledge, skills and attitudes cannot be separated, and lacking any one of them will be inadequate for a competent multicultural teacher, it is important to address these three domains properly as below.

Cognitive domain. Teachers should have adequate knowledge of the social complexity of schools and classrooms demands. Ungerleider (1995) argues that stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination always result from partial understanding or irrational and misinformed viewpoints about people. “Denial of and/or inadequate preparation for social diversity is thought to be counteracted by bringing about changes in teachers and in the way they relate to their students” (p.229). Hence, there should be an element of preparing teachers for understanding their students, their ethnic backgrounds, and possible links between their previous education system and the current one. In terms of educating

the NAS, Hong Kong teachers need to understand the mainland education system, the pedagogical procedures and the learning characteristics of the NAS.

Skill domain. Reforming the traditional chalk-and-talk one-size-for-all teaching approach is always a challenge to school-based pedagogical effectiveness. Most teachers find it difficult to conduct curriculum tailoring to cater for the diverse needs of students. The fact is there is a gap between Hong Kong curriculum and the Mainland, and subject teachers are in need of focused skill training in order to bridge the curricular gap. Again, effective dialogue with the students’ ethnic culture will promote positive self-esteem and enhance learning motivation. Schools should also encourage teachers to be familiar with the mainland cultural curricular elements. The use of mainland textbooks, worksheets and teaching materials are invaluable in raising cross-cultural awareness. Although shared collaborative culture is still new to most schools with a large NAS intake, currently there are numerous endeavours to promote co-teaching in Hong Kong schools. Nevertheless, Marshall (1998) warns us that teacher educators should be aware of the thinking pattern and the likely emotional responses of teachers undergoing development.

The language skills of teachers are vital to ensure the quality academic achievement of all students, especially the newly arrived. There are numerous efforts to brush up the subject competence of language teachers. The recent introduction of the language benchmark policy is the step forward despite vocal objections. Teachers need professional support to integrate relevant cultural elements into English learning. To enhance the effectiveness of language teachers, schools should collaborate with institutions and introduce a professional language support programme.

Affective domain. Both the commitment and vision of teachers play a critical part in enhancing learning effectiveness. Many multicultural educators advocate the need for hands-on, community-based and culturally relevant training for prospective teachers. Through cultural immersion programmes teachers will be encouraged to examine and reflect upon their own vision of multicultural education (Boyle-Baise and Sleeter, 2000; Wiggins and Follo, 1999). Most adjustment problems encountered by the newly arrived students are rooted in poor teacher-student relationships. Either teachers are too busy to “play” with the new arrivals, or they do not have the motivation to do so. There are cases where teachers are very keen to extend their care to the new

arrivals but they lack the necessary background knowledge. Teacher attachment schemes can be one of the effective agents of change in shaping teachers' perception of NAS. Increased participation in mainland schools, and exposure to mainland cultures will not only enhance teachers' effectiveness, but also will facilitate the development of personal vision of multicultural education. The more they understand the more likely it is that they will integrate the NAS culture and learning style in their classroom teaching.

Conclusion

This exploratory study highlights some key issues in educating the NAS in Hong Kong schools and provides a platform for further discussion on continuing teacher education. It has argued that there is a mismatch between the challenges of NAS education and serving teacher's pedagogical practices. The case schools have illuminated the struggles and realities of educating the NAS and have shown implications for a wider circle. Because the number of NAS will continue to increase the issue of successful quality education for the Hong Kong and mainland born students will continue to be a pressing one. This essay has proposed a possible agenda for a three-fronted cognitive-behavioural - affective approach to support and develop the necessary multicultural and pedagogical practice of Hong Kong teachers. This novel school-based teacher continuing education approach, however, should also be characterized by an immersion programme which provides valuable personal exposure to mainland culture and schooling.

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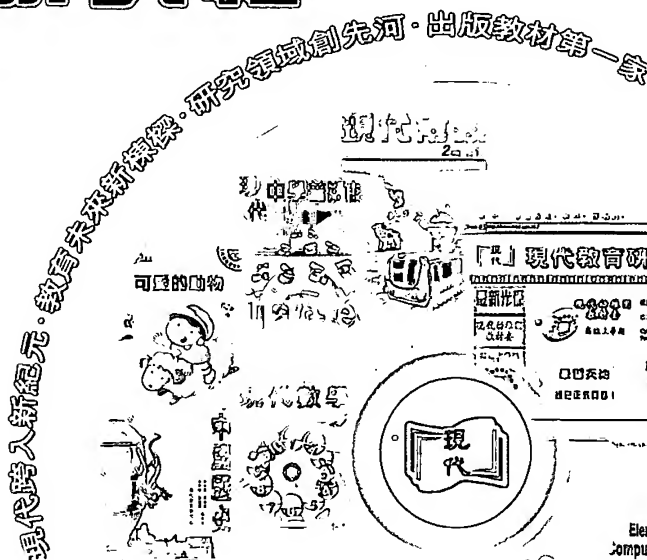
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建立基督教學校文化的探討

何國萍

基督教教育研究院

踏進廿一世紀，當世界各地(包括香港)正進行教育改革之際，基督教學校當作何反思？本文的目的在於引發基督教教育工作者探討以下問題：為何要建立基督教學校文化？建立怎樣的基督教學校文化？如何建立基督教學校文化？此外，本文亦提供一些具體可行的參考資料，藉以推廣基督教學校文化，使基督教學校能提升學校效能，更好地培育下一代(學生)。

An Investigation on the Development of Christian School Culture

In the beginning of the 21st Century, many countries (including Hong Kong) are undertaking education reform. What reflection should Christian schools have? The purpose of this paper is to initiate Christian school workers to investigate the following questions: Why do we need to develop Christian school culture? What kind of Christian school culture should we develop? How should we develop Christian school culture? Furthermore, this paper also provides some practical references for Christian schools, so that Christian school culture can be promoted, school effectiveness can be improved, and our next generations (students) can be better educated.

建立基督教學校文化的意義

耶穌基督在馬太福音中曾以鹽與光的比喻教導門徒應對世界發揮良好的影響(太五13-16)。史托德(1994)也指出基督徒要從世界當中分別出來，並認為在教會悠久而起伏的歷史中，最大的悲劇也許莫過於傾向順從那佔優勢的社會文化，而不去推展基督教文化。因此，基督教(包括天主教及更正教)學校既是由基督教辦學團體或教會所興辦，也當發揮為鹽為光的功效，俾能對社會發揮更大影響力(貢獻)，以榮神益人。

另一方面，Purkey & Smith (1983)曾指出一所學術上有效能的學校，具有顯著的文化：一個結構、過程、價值氣氛和規範引導教師和學生走向成功的教學和學習。Deal & Kennedy (1983)亦指出強勢的學校組織文化可提供內在凝聚力，使教師教學，學生學習更容易，而且學校其他人員也會有助於教學的進步，因而能提高教育生產力。鄭燕祥(1995)也認為學校組織文化是維持學校整合團結的基本要素，強的學校文化有鮮明的學校教育理想，團聚校內成員的精神和力量，朝向學校目標努力；同時，學校文化又社化新的成員(學生或老

師)，使他們認同已存的價值和理想，以這學校為榮，同樣投入學校工作。故此，強文化的學校應有更佳的成員工作表現，而顯出在各指標上的學校效能也應較佳。

因此，在踏進廿一世紀，當世界各地(包括香港、中國、台灣、美國)正進行教育改革之際，基督教學校應致力建立優良而具有特色的基督教學校文化，以提升學校效能，更好地培育下一代，榮神益人。根據香港教育署統計組資料顯示，於2001年9月30日香港有883間基督教學校(包括天主教及更正教的中學、小學與幼稚園，約為全港學校的百分之四十六)。本文的目的在於為基督教學校提供具體而可行的參考資料，藉以推廣基督教學校文化，貢獻社會。

基督教學校文化的界定

要建立怎樣的基督教學校文化？本文所探討的，不是一般的學校文化，不是一般的基督教或教會文化，而是兩者都需要顧及的基督教學校文化。因此，此等文化必須同時符合以下三項條件：

一、符合文化的定義

「文化」一詞，定義極為紛歧，至今尚未有一致的看法，因此本文所選取的是以下兩個較切合學校文化所用的定義：

1. Griffin(1990)：組織文化是指組織的一套價值，協助組織成員了解組織的目標、作法及組織所認為重要的事。
2. 吳清山(1998)：組織文化是一個組織經過其內在運作系統的維持與外在環境變化的互動之下，所長期累積發展的各種產物：信念、價值、規範、態度、期望、儀式、符號、故事和行為等，組織成員共同分享這些產物的意義後，會以自然而然的方式表現於日常生活之中，形成組織獨特的現象。

二、源於聖經，並為神所重視

基督教學校文化必須源於基督教，然而不同宗派卻有著不同的傳統文化。因此本文直接從聖經中找出神所重視的教導作為準則。

三、必須與能提升學校效能有關

基督教學校文化，不單與基督教有關，也必須與學校有關。而建立基督教學校文化的目的之一是要提升學校效能，因此，此等文化將局限在「與提升學校效能有關」的範疇內。

對於學校效能的評估，一直以來都很有爭議性，因為它涉及一些很難獲得一致答案的基本問題：「甚麼標準」、「誰的標準」、「誰做評估」、「如何進行」等(鄭燕祥，1995)。雖然如此，不少學者曾致力進行有效能學校研究之探討與分析，並歸納出一些有效能學校之特徵或要素，如強烈的學生親密感、高度的教職員間同心協力、經常和不斷地與家長溝通、良好的學校文化、明確的目標、教職員的進修與發展等(McCormack-Larkin & Kritek, 1983; Davis & Thomas, 1989; Levine & Lezotte, 1990; 吳清山, 1998)。有些學者亦綜合出影響學校效能的文化要素，如同心協力、高度期望、明確支持等(Saphin & King, 1985; Gorton, 1987)。

基於以上所述，筆者謹將基督教學校文化嘗試界定如下：

基督教學校文化乃基督教學校成員根據聖經的教導，經一段時間發展而成的產物：信念、價值、規範、態度、期望和行為等，此等產物皆有助提升學校效能，有助達成學校所預訂的目標。

整理出以下幾項優良而具有特色的基督教學校文化，供學校參考。

一般來說，在學校內之成員主要包括學校同工(校長、主任、教師、職員)及學生。然而教養子女是父母的責任(弗六4; 申六6-7)，教師只是受託協助他們完成責任而已(彭孝廉，2000)。因此，家長也當被列入學校成員之內，而學校文化所涉及之有關成員便應包括學校同工、學生及家長。

一、植根於基督大愛的互愛文化

聖經很重視愛。首先愛是神的本性(約壹四8,16)，也因為神愛世人，才有基督在十字架上捨身流血的救贖(約三16; 羅五6-8)。愛也是聖靈所結的九種美德之首(加五22)，能推動其他美德，並賦予意義，使生命變得更豐盛(西三14)。耶穌更將律法總結在愛神和愛人兩條最大的誡命中(可十二29-31)，並賜給門徒「彼此相愛」的新命令(約十三34-35)。保羅在哥林多前書十三章將這種神聖的愛的真義及重要性詳細述說出來，並在最後一節宣稱：如今常存的有信，有望，有愛，這三樣，其中最大的是愛。

鄭石岩(1994)在《教師的大愛》一書指出，今天的教育最缺乏的是愛而不是設備和資源；教育上最需要的是教育工作者必須有一顆開放的愛心，能了解孩子，和孩子同理互動，才能有效協助孩子學習及做生活調適，給予溫馨和安全感，引導其心理成長。

筆者從二十多年的教學生活、家庭生活及教會生活中，深深體會到人與人之間彼此相愛的關係是非常重要的。真愛可推動一個人為對方的好處而努力及付出代價；被愛的人可以為對方的愛所感動而奮發自強，並以愛去回應對方。Levine & Lezotte(1990)及吳清山(1998)亦指出和諧的學校氣氛是有效能學校特徵之一。愛既能帶來彼此接納、互勉互勵，因而使人與人之間的關係更和諧美好，因此，筆者深信互愛的文化必能提升學校效能。

聖經清楚指出：「我們愛，因為神先愛我們。」(約壹四19)「我們應當彼此相愛，因為愛是從神來的。」(約壹四7)耶穌更鄭重地說：「我賜給你們一條新命令，乃是叫你們彼此相愛。我怎樣愛你們，你們也要怎樣相愛。你們若有彼此相愛的心，眾人因此就認出你們是我的門徒了。」(約十三34-35)

綜合以上所述，筆者認為基督教學校應當致力建立『植根於基督大愛的互愛文化』，讓教師、學生和家長一同體驗神的愛，並學習耶穌基督愛人的榜樣，彼此相愛，互勉互勵，使學校和家庭生活更和諧美好，教與學方面更積極愉快！

具有特色的基督教學校文化

二、在主裏同心配搭的協作文化

在這個知識爆炸的時代，很少教師能擁有足夠的知識和技能，在每個學習領域中教導學生，讓他能均衡成長。因此教師間(甚至是聯同家長)的協作教學是必須的了。

從學校的角度而言，教職員間的同心協力和合作精神(McCormack-Larkin & Kritek, 1982; Levine & Lezotte, 1990)、家長的參與及支持(Levine & Lezotte, 1990; 吳清山, 1998)，都是有效能學校的特徵。此外，Saphier & King (1985)更列出同心協力-學校教職員相互協助，乃十二項能影響學校改進的學校文化之一。

聖經清楚指出，在教會裏神給每個信徒都有不同的恩賜及職份，最重要是能各盡其職、彼此配搭，讓信徒皆得著成長，教會得著建立，神的名得著榮耀(弗四11-16; 林前十二12-27)。另一方面，聖經亦很強調信徒要有效地配搭事奉，必須要同心合一，而基礎是在具有同一信仰及順服同一位主上(林前十二4-7; 弗四1-7)。陳終道(2000)也指出，亞摩司書三章三節所說「二人若不同心，豈能同行」，不是偏重人與人之間的同意，而是人願意與神同心，行神所吩咐，所喜悅的事。

因此，基督教學校應致力建立『在主裏同心配搭的協作文化』，使教師、職員及家長都能了解及認同學校的教育理念及目標，並發揮神所賜的恩賜，彼此配搭，按聖經真理完成神所託付教育下一代的使命。

三、為基督忠心奮進的教學文化

一個人無論在學習上或工作上要有成就，勤奮努力是一個非常重要的因素。耶穌基督在「才幹的比喻」中(太廿五14-33)清楚指出神賜給人不同的才幹或潛質，人的才幹有多少並不重要，最重要是如何使用。神不會要求人所沒有的才幹，但神卻要人盡其才。因為人的才幹可以不同，但在努力上卻可以相等。因此，期望每個人(包括學生和教師)在某方面都有同樣卓越的成績是不恰當的，但每個人都可以決心善用神所賜的才幹或潛質，在應有的角色或崗位上勤奮努力，改進及發揮自己。「所求於管家的，是要他有忠心。」(林前四2)這是神清楚而又合理的要求。

另一方面，聖經很清楚教導信徒做事(當然包括教學與學習)的態度和動機：「所以你們或吃或喝，無論作甚麼，都要為榮耀神而行。」(林前十31)「無論作甚麼，都要從心裏作，像是給主作的，不是給人作的。」(西三23)「不要只在眼前事奉，像是討人喜歡的，要像基督的僕人，從心裏遵行神的旨意。甘心事奉，好像事奉主，不像事奉人。」(弗六6-7)因此，教師努力教學，不是為

要討好學生、家長或校長，不是為要博取升職的機會，而是為基督而作，為榮耀神而行。學生努力學習，不是單為了考取好的成績，入讀好的學校，而是要努力裝備自己，使日後能發揮神所賜的才幹或潛質，去貢獻社會，榮耀基督。

《明報》「enabler 21 現代精英點將錄」(2000年3月13日)記載，康柏(Compaq)電腦有限公司董事總經理楊思毅入行二十多年，曾經跌過，氣餒過，但最終就是憑著「勤力」和「忠誠」這兩大要素取得成功。筆者認為基督教學校更應努力建立『為基督忠心奮進的教學文化』，讓教師和學生(甚至家長)在教與學上能為主忠心努力，一同成功，見證榮耀主。

四、凡事積極信靠神的祈禱文化

祈禱、信靠神明顯是聖經重要的教導(帖前五16-18; 弗六18; 腓四6-7)。耶穌也經常作出禱告的教導(太六5-15; 七7-11; 十八19-20; 可十四38; 路十八1-14; 約十五7)和榜樣(太廿五36-39; 可一35; 路廿三34; 約十七17)。初期教會的信徒同心合意地恆切禱告(徒一12-14)，也是教會信主人數迅速增長的主要因素之一。

從教育方面看，雅各書一章五節也教導我們可以向神求智慧，而所羅門王向神求智慧便是著名的例子(王上三4-28; 代下一7-17)。彭孝廉(2000)更強調基督教教育工作是一項屬靈的工作，必須有屬靈的力量才能完成。

因此，基督教學校應建立具有特色的『凡事積極信靠神的祈禱文化』，讓神介入學校教育工作中發揮奇妙的果效，使祂的名字得著高舉。

建立基督教學校文化的模式及方法

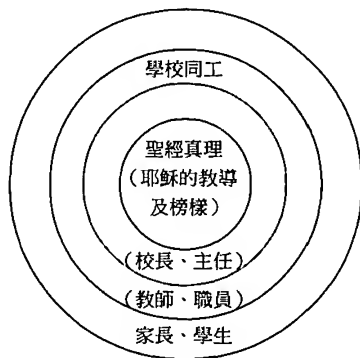
組織文化是一個組織經過其內在運作系統的維持與外在環境變化的互動之下，所長期累積發展的各種產物(吳清山, 1998)。此外，文化亦是個人所承受，並傳授的社會遺產，是為了一個或多個目的而計劃，並努力創作下才能形成的(尼布爾, 1979)。那麼應如何有計劃地建立基督教學校文化呢？

聖經記載了耶穌如何將天國的福音傳遍世界的方式，Ford(1991)稱之為滲透式(Infiltrating Style)的小眾策略(Minority Strategy)：耶穌先呼召十二門徒(從中更集中在彼得、雅各和約翰三人身上)，然後培訓他們，以生命影響他們的生命，使他們認識及認同天國福音的道理，再差遣他們將這道理傳揚開去，從耶路撒冷、猶太全地、撒瑪利亞，直到地極(徒一8)。四福音亦清楚顯示耶穌建立門徒生命及塑造門徒價值觀的主要方法是透過榜樣(約十三1-17, 34)和教導，而教導中特別著重比

喻法和故事法(太十三; 可四; 路十25-37,十五, 十六19-31)。

筆者認為建立基督教學校文化亦可參考這種滲透式的方法, 此種滲透模式包括以下幾個重點(見圖 1):

1. 成員皆須從聖經中學習, 特別是耶穌的教導和榜樣。
2. 由學校同工(校長、主任、教師、職員)開始, 特別可先集中在校長和主任方面, 大家認同、承受後, 便以身作則, 有計劃地透過不同活動或途徑, 先傳遞給教師及職員, 再傳遞給家長及學生。
3. 活動或途徑須多元化, 應重視在聖經中學習、以比喻和故事作教導、詩歌和見證分享等。
4. 此等學校文化可與其他學校分享, 使能繼續擴展開去。



其他學校

圖 1 建立基督教學校文化的滲透模式

以下謹就上述四項基督教學校文化提供一些活動/途徑, 作為參考, 並盼能產生『拋磚引玉』的果效。

一、整體方面

1. 舉行各類型團契(教職員團契、學生團契、家長團契), 一同從聖經中學習, 彼此分享、互勉、禱告(來十24-25)。
2. 組織各類型的祈禱小組(3至4人一組), 學習禱告的功課, 體驗禱告的大能。
3. 將有關以上學校文化的重要經文標貼於當眼處。
4. 每年可以一至兩項的文化作為學校的主題, 推行為期兩星期至一個月的全校性活動。
5. 將學校的辦學宗旨及教育目標清晰地記錄在教師手冊、家長手冊及學生手冊中, 並經常透過不同場合合作教導、分享和互勉。
6. 校方可多購買基督教教育、讀經及禱祈的材料, 以供同工、家長及學生參考。

7. 透過獎勵計劃鼓勵勤奮及有增值表現的學生、教師及家長, 亦可在適當場合讚賞學生勤奮努力的表現。

二、同工方面

1. 所聘請的校長、主任、教師及職員必須認同學校的辦學宗旨及教育目標, 並接受基督教教育培訓, 樂於與學校合力完成教育使命。
2. 在每天上課前安排20-30分鐘靈修時間, 讓同工在事奉前親近及倚靠神, 支取智慧與力量。
3. 校董在經濟、禱告、人事安排, 甚至住宿方面支持校長, 讓他能安心、努力地帶領學校同工, 實現學校的教育抱負及使命。
4. 校長在教學安排、進修及禱告方面支持教師, 讓他們能發揮所長, 同心配搭, 積極幫助學生成長。

三、學生方面

1. 在早上上課前之集會或早會中為該天的教學及社會、世界大事公禱。放學前, 任課老師或基督徒同學在班上領禱, 為該天教學感恩, 為課後生活代求。
2. 班主任亦可為班內學生(由基督徒學生開始)組織祈禱小組, 彼此守望、代求。
3. 重視因材施教的原則, 按學生的需要和能力, 採用適當的教學語言、課程、活動、作業和評核方法, 並創設適當的學習環境, 使學生有興趣學習, 獲取成功。成績表內應重視(列出)學生在勤學方面的評核。
4. 培訓高年級學生輔導低年級學生學習及成長。

四、家長方面

1. 入學前可透過展覽、座談會及面談, 讓家長認識並認同學校的辦學宗旨及教育目標, 並願意積極與學校配搭, 承擔教育子女的責任。
2. 成立學校及家庭合作委員會統籌以下事工:
 - (1) 家長教師會 - 負責家長與教師之聯繫及配搭, 以強化協作文化。
 - (2) 家長中心 - 負責家長教育事工, 如培訓課程、講座、小組、輔導及探訪等, 以協助家長成功地教養子女。

結語

在這個教育改革及教育多元化的年代，基督教學校應致力建立具有特色的基督教學校文化，以提升學校效能，更好地培育下一代，以榮神益人。

要建立優良的基督教學校文化，最好先從一群有共同信念及教育理想的基督徒開始，然後採用「滲透模式」，以身作則地將要建立的文化傳遞開去。因此，在招聘教師及招收學生方面具有較大自主權的私立或直資學校及未有特別傳統文化的新校，應會較容易建立基督教學校文化。然而，縱使是津貼學校或已有多年歷史的學校，只要辦學團體及校長有這樣的決心，也可參考以上建議，倚靠神努力去更新校內的文化，一同為鹽為光，貢獻社會，榮神益人。

此外，文化是具多元性的(尼布爾, 1979)，除本文所提出的「互愛文化」、「協作文化」、「教學文化」和「祈禱文化」外，各基督教學校亦可按聖經及教育原則，建立其他優良的基督教學校文化。

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香港中小學教師的“業績評估偏向”對選擇 創造力代表人物之調查分析¹

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本研究通過問卷調查研究的方法，搜集了264位香港的中小學教師對中國古代和現代創造力代表人物的認知。結果發覺香港中小學教師提名了大量的政界及科學界的傑出人物，而絕少提及文化界、藝術界、音樂界等領域的傑出人物。這一結果驗證了近年提出的中國人對創造力代表人物認知中存在某種“業績評估偏向”的假設（Yue, 2001），它使得人們多從個人成就和社會影響的角度來評估其創造力表現。就其成因來說，“業績評估偏向”是多種社會文化因素綜合作用的結果，其中包括儒家思想之“修身、齊家、治國、平天下”理念，中國社會之“官本位”思想，中國人對權威人物的傳統崇拜與順從，中國人的社會中心取向等因素的影響。綜合起來，這偏向使中國人對知識的追求和價值判斷存在某種功利主義的取向。至於其如何發展而來，尚有待人們做進一步探討和驗證。

A Study of the Meritorious Evaluation Bias among Hong Kong Primary and Secondary School Teachers in the Selection of Creative Chinese Individuals

The present study investigated 264 primary and secondary school teachers in Hong Kong about their perception of the most creative people in Chinese history and in modern times. The results indicate that Hong Kong school teachers mostly nominated politicians and scientists as being most representative of creativity but rarely nominated literarists, artists, musicians as being so. This finding may be attributed to the effect of "meritorious evaluation bias" in Chinese people's perception of creativity that is embedded in the Confucian ideals of learning for the sake of serving the society. This has further led to a tradition of "intellectual utilitarianism" in Chinese people's pursuit of knowledge. As reflected in evaluating creative people in Chinese history, it leads people to judge creative individuals more in terms of their social merits or influence in society than in terms of their innovativeness in thinking.

前言

創造力泛指個人創造新事物、新概念、新產品的能力（岳曉東，2000a）。有研究表明中國人對創造力的理解，甚強調道德與政治因素的影響。例如，在中國大陸，查子秀等人（1994）發現，培養良好的道德行為是培養創造力的一個重要條件；而在中國大陸教育政策的討論和規劃中，人們近來甚強調“非智力因素”對智力的影響，其本質也是強調通過培養各種人格和道德因素來開發學生的智力及創造力（岳曉東及龔放，1999）。在臺灣，吳武典曾指出，中國人自古以來對創造力的理解和開發都很強調道德規範的作用（Wu, 1996）。在香港，陳永昌也指出，在中小學教育中，教師不會鼓勵學生去開發那些為社會公德所不容的創造力（Chan, 1997）。對於這一現象，岳曉東提出（Yue, 2001），在中國人對

創造力人才的認知當中，存在著某種“業績評估偏向”（meritorious evaluation bias）的作用，這是指人們在看待創造力代表人物的表現及其成果時，多從其個人業績或社會影響的角度來加以判斷，形成認知上的某種偏向或心理定勢作用。換言之，“業績評估偏向”可導致人們在看待創造力成果及其代表人物時，首先考慮到其個人業績或社會影響，然後才考慮其創造力表現。

岳曉東（2000a, 2000b）曾以定性研究的方法，調查了489名北京、廣州、香港和臺北的大學生，瞭解他們對古今創造力代表人物的看法及其與政治的關係。其研究要求每個受訪者分別填寫出三名中國古代與現代最有創造力的代表人物，並具體指出其突出的創造力表現。這樣做是為了確保受訪者在提名最具創造力代表人物時，的確知道其創造力成就，而不是根據其人的知名度來加以提名。

調查結果表明，四地大學生在提名創造力代表人物

¹ 本文作者特借此機會感謝香港城市大學研究委員會為本研究撥款（Project No. 9030826）。

時，大量提名了政界名人，且不受兩岸三地之地域差異的影響。具體地說，在北京大學生提名人物中，有50%的古人和70%的現代人是政治人物；在廣州大學生提名人物中，有44%的古人和71%的現代人是政治人物；在香港大學生提名人物中，有45%的古人和70%的現代人是政治人物；在臺北大學生提名人物中，有33%的古人和55%的現代人是政治人物。除臺北大學生外，其他三地大學生的提名比例也相當接近。此外，比較中國古代最具創造力人物之前十名的排位，有六位是政治人物，他們依次為諸葛亮、秦始皇、武則天、黃帝、大禹和商鞅。而比較中國現代最具創造力人物之前十名排位，毛澤東、孫中山、鄧小平三人是各地學生提名最頻繁的人物，其中鄧小平位居北京、廣州和香港學生提名的第一位，毛澤東位居北京、廣州學生提名的第二位，孫中山則位居臺北學生提名第一位，香港學生提名的第二位，北京和廣州學生提名的第三位。

由此可見，四地大學生在判斷創造力代表人物的個人表現時，的確受到某種“業績評估偏向”的影響。但由於該項研究的受訪者範圍僅限於大學生群體，其調查結果尚不完全具文化代表性。故筆者在本研究以同樣方法調查了264名香港的中小教師，瞭解他們對古今創造力代表人物的看法及其與政治的關係。

本研究主要有兩個目的：(1) 驗證“業績評估偏向”是否也存在于成年人對創造力代表人物的認知中；(2) 對“業績評估偏向”之形成做深入的理論探討。

研究方法

受訪者

本項研究取樣於香港四所中學的178名教師及四所小學的86名教師，其中男性占35.6%，女性占64.4%，平均年齡約為三十二歲。教學經驗五年或以下之的占三成，平均約具十多年之教學經驗。

測量方法

本研究所用的問卷包括兩部分。第一部分要求受訪者分別填寫出三名中國古代和現代最有創造力的代表人物，並具體指出其創造力表現。第二部分要求受訪者填寫其個人資料。整個問卷約用10-15分鐘時間完成。

資料處理

對於問卷結果，筆者採取了如下處理步驟：(一)將所有的提名人物及其提名原因全部輸入資料庫；(二)將

這些提名人物及其提名原因按與創造力的相關程度進行分類，其中作者先與一位研究助手分別鑒別，然後再一同匯集總結；(三)當在分類過程中出現分歧時，筆者會尋求第三者、甚至第四者的意見，以最後確定其屬性；(四)將分類結果通過適當的圖表顯示出來。

結果報告

中小學教師所提名創造力代表人物之類型對比

表一展示了中小學教師的受訪人數，整體提名人數和個體提名人數。

表一. 香港中小學教師之受訪人數與提名人數總表¹

地區	受訪人數	性別	整體提名人數	個體提名人數
中學教師	178	男：70	古代人物：324	古代人物：61
		女：96	現代人物：445	現代人物：81
小學教師	86	男：41	古代人物：166	古代人物：30
		女：42	現代人物：217	現代人物：38

¹ 在本表中，20世紀前的人物皆算作古代人物。

表二和表三比較了香港中小學教師所提名中國古代和現代創造力代表人物的差異。在對中國古代創造力代表人物的提名當中，政治家的提名比例分別占中小學教師的總提名比例的31.5%和31.3%，名列創造力代表人物之分類的首位。此外，著名科學家和發明家的提名比例僅次於政治家，其百分比也遠遠超過其他種類的人物。而在對中國現代創造力代表人物的提名當中，政治家的提名比例分別占中小學教師的總提名比例的56.7%和65.3%，遠遠超過了任何其他種類人物的提名比例。這表明，香港的中小學教師，如同兩岸三地的大學生一樣，都易將創造力與突出的政治人物及科技人物結合起來(岳曉東，2000a, 2000b)。值得注意的是，香港中小學教師對著名藝術家、音樂家、歌唱家、導演和演員等甚強調個性和獨立風格之人物的提名極低，都不超過5%。

表二. 香港中小學教師提名之中國古代創造力代表人物類型對比^{1 2}

創造力代表人物分類	中學教師(n=178)		小學教師(n=86)	
	提名次數	百分比	提名次數	百分比
政治家	102	31.5%	51	31.3%
發明家	93	28.7%	71	43.6%
科學家	37	11.4%	10	6.1%
文學家	27	8.3%	11	6.8%
哲學家/教育家	49	15.1%	18	11.0%

音樂家/藝術家	6	1.9%		
虛構人物	8	2.5%		
軍事家	1	10.5%	2	11.7%
其他	1	0.3%	-	

¹ 本表中所有的人名是由本文作者和另外一位助手先分別鑒別，再一同匯總而定的。

² 由於中國封建社會完結於20世紀初，所以凡20世紀前的人物皆算作古代人物，凡20世紀後的人物皆算作現代人物。其中許多人同時是不同職業的名人。在此情況下，他們均以其更知名的職業來鑒定的，沒有一個名人被重複輸入（如諸葛亮既是政治家，也是軍事家，但諸葛亮在中國歷史上更以政治家知名，所以他被算作政治家）。

表三. 香港中小學教師提名之中國現代創造力代表人物類型對比

創造力代表人物分類	中學教師(n=178)		小學教師(n=86)	
	提名次數	百分比	提名次數	百分比
政治人物	261	58.7%	139	65.3%
科學家/醫生/工程師	61	13.7%	28	13.2%
發明家	36	8.1%	16	7.5%
文學家	34	7.6%	22	10.3%
哲學家/教育家	10	2.3%	1	0.5%
演藝界人士	16	3.6%	1	0.5%
企業家	14	3.2%	5	2.4%
音樂家/藝術家	7	1.6%	-	-
其他	6	1.4%	1	0.5%

綜上所述，香港中小學教師多從政治與科技的角度來看待個人創造力的表現，而絕少從文學或藝術的角度來加以判斷。此外，香港中小學教師也絕少提名商界和藝術界的成功人士，這些結果也與以往調查研究所發現的中國人看創造力重實用性而不重藝術性的結果甚相呼應(e.g., Rudowicz & Hui, 1997; Rudowicz & Yue, 2000)。

中小學教師所提名創造力代表人物之前十名對比

表四和表五展示了香港中小學教師提名中國古代與現代創造力代表人物之前十名人選對比。在對中國古代創造力代表人物的提名中（見表四），八名被同時提名的人物有秦始皇、蔡倫、倉頡、孔子、諸葛亮、李白、張衡和黃帝。而細察其前五名的人選對比，他們在百分比及排名上幾乎完全相同，只有蔡倫於小學教師中所得的百分比明顯多於中學教師中所得的百分比一倍（小學：18.1%，中學：9.6%），而其排名與秦始皇剛剛對調。值得注意的是，香港中學教師所提名中國古代創造力代表人物前十名的百分比為66.7%，而小學教師之總百分比達86.5%，這說明上述人物在香港中小學教師中的認可性相當高，尤其是在小學教師當中。還值得注意的是，在前十名創造力代表人物的比例當中，政治人物分別占

中學教師和小學教師提名比例的22.2%和24.1%，各占其百分比總數的三成左右。而秦始皇在香港中小學教師中前十名提名人物之平均值排列第一位（24.4%）。

表四. 香港中小學教師提名中國古代創造力代表人物之前十名人選對比

創造力代表人物	中學教師 (n=178)			小學教師 (n=86)		
	排名	提名次數	百分比	排名	提名次數	百分比
蔡倫	3	31	9.6%	1	30	18.1%
秦始皇	1	40	12.4%	3	20	12.1%
倉頡	2	33	10.2%	2	22	13.3%
孔子	4	24	7.4%	4	13	7.8%
諸葛亮	5	23	7.1%	5	11	6.6%
李白	6	19	5.9%	7	9	5.4%
張衡	7	18	5.6%	9	7	4.2%
黃帝	9	9	2.8%	7	9	5.4%
畢昇				5	11	6.6%
李時珍				10	5	3.0%
神農氏				10	5	3.0%
莊子	8	10	3.1%			
華陀	9	9	2.8%			
總數		216	66.7%		144	86.5%

表五. 香港中小學教師提名中國現代創造力代表人物之前十名人選對比

創造力代表人物	中學教師 (n=178)			小學教師 (n=86)		
	排名	提名次數	百分比	排名	提名次數	百分比
鄧小平	1	74	16.6%	1	40	18.4%
孫中山	2	68	15.3%	2	33	15.2%
毛澤東	3	50	11.2%	3	26	12.0%
高錕	4	32	7.2%	4	15	6.9%
朱鎔基	5	18	4.0%	4	15	6.9%
貝聿銘	6	15	3.4%	8	7	3.2%
詹天佑				6	9	4.2%
崔琦				7	8	3.7%
金庸				9	6	2.8%
江澤民				9	6	2.8%
魯迅				7	12	2.7%
何大一	8	9	2.0%			
李嘉誠	8	9	2.0%			
楊振寧	8	9	2.0%			
總數		296	66.5%		165	76.0%

在中國現代創造力代表人物之前十名人選對比中（見表五），被同時提名的六位人物是鄧小平、孫中山、毛澤東、高錕、朱鎔基及貝聿銘。有趣的是，除貝聿銘外，其餘五人在香港中小學教師提名中的排名次序完全一樣，連其百分比也大致相同，相差只0.1%至2.9%之間，唯有朱鎔基於小學教師所得百分比與高錕相近，同

名列第四。還值得注意的是，這五人當中有四人為政治人物。而在前十名提名人物之比例當中，政治人物分別占中學教師和小學教師的提名比例的47.2%和55.3%，各占其百分比總數的七成左右。其中鄧小平、孫中山、毛澤東這三人的提名比數就占了所有前十名提名比數的六成以上（中學教師：67.9%；小學教師：60.0%）。

綜上所述，在香港中小學教師所提名中國古代和現代創造力代表人物之前十名人選中，政治人物的提名比例占古代人物提名比例的三成以上，占現代人物提名比例的六成以上。這突出表明，香港中小學教師在提名創造力代表人物時，的確存在著某種“業績評估偏向”的作用。

結果討論

研究結果的討論

本項研究發現，香港中小學教師在對創造力代表人物的提名當中，大量提名了政界及學界的傑出人物，而絕少提及文化界、藝術界、音樂界等領域的傑出人物。這與岳曉東（2000a；2000b）以前對京、穗、港及臺北四地大學生所做的調查結果甚相一致。它再次表明，中國人在對創造力的認知當中，很少將其與文學、藝術上的突出成就結合起來，而主要將其與政治和科技的重大成果結合起來（Rudowicz & Hui, 1997; Rudowicz & Yue, 2000; Yue & Rudowicz, 2002）。而根據美國最近發表的一項有關著名天才人物的調查結果表明，科學家、藝術家和音樂家是美國大學生所十分推崇的天才人物，其中包括愛因斯坦、牛頓、莫扎特、達·芬奇、達爾文、莎士比亞等人，而絕少有政治人物被提及（Smith & Wright, 2000）。中國人對創造力及其代表人物的認知模式與西方人的認知模式相差甚遠，其根本原因就在於中國人對創造力的判斷甚受“業績評估偏向”的影響（Yue & Rudowicz, 2002）。

分析“業績評估偏向”的成因，筆者認為，它主要是中國文化中知識功利主義（intellectual utilitarianism）的作用結果。具體地說，知識功利主義是一種對知識資訊及其用途之價值判斷的實用主義傾向，它突出表現為對於知識的追求重內容過於形式，重成效過於結果。在中國社會中，知識功利主義的形成是多種社會文化因素綜合作用的結果，這當中包括儒家思想之“修身、齊家、治國、平天下”的理念，中國社會之“官本位”的主導思想，中國人對權威人物的傳統崇拜與順從及中國人的社會中心取向等因素的作用（e.g., Chan, 1997; Wu, 1996; 楊中芳, 1999; 楊國樞, 1996）。由此，中國

文化對於知識的價值判斷向來就具有一種功利主義的傾向。千百年來，中國人讀書目的是為了做官，是為了造福社會，是為了履行個人對社會的職責，是為了清史留名。而中國社會的科舉制度更強化了這一價值判斷取向。

由於知識功利主義的影響，中國人對於知識的理解和運用相當單一化和功利化。表現在對創造力的認知模式上，它導致人們在判斷創新成果及其代表人物的價值和意義時，重實用性而不重獨創性，重社會影響而不重個體表現，凡事均以對社會的貢獻和影響大小來衡量其價值和用途。其結果是對社會貢獻越大的創新成果就越容易受到人們的利用；對社會影響越大的創新代表人物就越容易受到人們的尊重。雖然現今社會已經進入了網絡時代，但中國人對知識之實用價值的注重似仍不減當年。所以，在一定程度上，知識功利主義是一種理性傳統主義（rationalistic traditionalism）的表現（金耀基, 1992, 頁154），是儒家文化之強調個人對社會義務的延續，也是知識實用主義支配下的理性選擇。而依照西方學者弗裏德曼，“受中國文化熏染的人，在不很尋常的程度上，對問題的處理時採取經驗的實用主義態度，而不是在疑難的處境中便成為被動的宿命論者”（Freedman, 1979, p.25）。

因此，本研究的意義在於使我們意識到中國人對創造力認知中的“業績評估偏向”的存在及其知識功利主義的文化根源。這與當今社會之追求多元化、個體化的發展趨勢無疑是不相適應的。所以，我們亟需改變對創造力認知中的知識功利主義傾向，使我們對創造力的理解變得更加多元化和個性化，並更加深入到人們的日常生活中去。而唯有當我們走出對創造力認知的“業績評估偏向”誤區，提高問題意識，建立起某種大創造觀來，我們才能開創對創造力認識及教育的新局面，使每個人都能充分認識到其無限的創造力潛能，並充分地加以開發和利用（岳曉東, 2000c; 岳曉東及龔放, 1999; 龔放及岳曉東, 2000）。

研究方法的討論

就方法論而言，本研究以問卷調查的方法來檢查“業績評估偏向”對中國人有關創造力認知的影響，這也是對本土心理學研究方法的一次嘗試。當然，一、兩次研究的結果是不足以完全證實“業績評估偏向”之存在，人們還需做更加系統和深入的研究來確定其存在並探究其成因。在這當中，人們應當採取定性方法與定量方法（quantitative method）相結合的方法來做進一步

考證“業績評估偏向”的存在，最好能使其兩種方法所得出的結論能夠相互驗證 (cross-validation)。另外，本研究對開放式問卷所收集到的資料進行了較為客觀的、系統的量化處理。這也是對如何處理開放式問卷資料的一種嘗試，值得在今後的研究中不斷應用和改進。在這當中，怎樣進一步確保資料處理過程的客觀性與系統性，是提高定性資料所獲得研究結果之信度與效度的關鍵。

應當指出，本研究尚存有一些不足，如取樣並非隨機抽樣、規模不夠大、範圍僅限於香港中小學教師、男女比例不太理想等問題。所以，在今後的比較研究中，後進者當儘量擴大取樣的範圍、調整比例和引入隨機性抽樣，以使研究所得出的結果更具代表性和普遍指導意義。另外，今後的研究還應多比較中國人與其他國家和地區人們在創造力認知方式上的異同，特別是比較與歐美等西方社會人們的認知差異。相信這會大大促進我們對不同文化的人對創造力認知影響的瞭解。還有，本研究表明，“業績評估偏向”對於今人的表現較古人的表現更加顯著，這也需要做進一步跟蹤調查。在這層意義上講，本研究的價值更多地在於提出“業績評估偏向”這樣一個值得關注和深入探討的本土心理學現象，而非在立即給它一個令人滿意的答案。

最後，對於中國人在提名創造力代表人物時，大量列舉了政治與科技名人這一現象，我們除了用“業績評估偏向”的概念來加以解釋外，是否也可用“名人效應”(傳播媒介廣泛報導)的概念來加以解釋，這也是值得商討的。在這兩種概念中，哪一種概念更占主導地位，彼此又有多少重疊干擾 (confounding effect)，何種因素占主導地位，其相互之間又有何關係，尚有待於人們做進深的探討和驗證。例如，在本研究中，香港中小學教師對古代創造力代表人物的提名，很有可能是受到教科書的影響；尤其是小學教師在教授常識及中文科當中，時常有論及古人的作為，故此他們在這方面的個人平均提名數目 ($129/63=2.1$) 較中學教師的 ($324/178=1.8$) 為高，這是一個有趣的現象，值得做進一步的探討。又教師的專長學科會影響所選擇人物的範疇取向，研究中沒有處理這個變項。總之，本文的最大價值莫過於拋磚引玉，引起人們對“業績評估偏向”的關注，並就其成因做深入的研究。

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Using Transparencies and PowerPoint Slides to Aid Inductive Teaching

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This paper explores the extent to which transparencies and PowerPoint slides can aid inductive teaching from the point of view of the teacher-researcher and the students. The finding is that transparencies are more effective tools to aid inductive teaching though PowerPoint slides are visually more attractive. There are inherent limitations in the PowerPoint software that make it impossible to function effectively as an aid for inductive teaching. It is suggested that certain functions should be built into the PowerPoint software so that the slides can become effective tools both for deductive presentation and inductive teaching.

高映片及電腦簡報對啟發性教學法的輔助

本文從教師及學生兩方面去探討高映片及電腦簡報對啟發性教學法的輔助，發覺電腦簡報雖在視象方面較富吸引力，惟高映片在輔助啟發性教學方面卻更為有效，電腦簡報軟件有些潛在的限制，以致未能有效的輔助啟發性教學。建議改良電腦簡報軟件，使其能更配合推理性及啟發性教學。

1. Introduction

It has been a common practice for teachers in universities to use transparencies to aid their lectures and tutorials. With the development of new technologies in recent years, there are more and more teachers using PowerPoint slides as visual aids in lectures, mini-lectures or tutorials in their classrooms.

How technology fits into a conceptual framework of principles for learning and teaching is seldom raised. By choosing to use a particular kind of technology or visual aid, the teacher has in fact implicitly taken a position on a much deeper philosophical issue about the nature of knowledge and how it is acquired. How and when any instructional process is used reflects the teacher's assumptions about how people learn (Grasha and Yangarber-Hicks 2000) or the way in which the teacher wishes the students to learn.

Both transparencies and PowerPoint slides were originally designed to be presentation tools to help teachers teach deductively. In deductive teaching, the ideas to be taught

are presented directly to the learner in a relatively complete form (Grabe and Grabe 1998) usually through teacher talk. The PowerPoint slides or transparencies are generally used to provide the students with visual aids to facilitate their listening and understanding. On the one hand, PowerPoint slides provide visual novelty that the students' cognitive system needs to help them pay attention for extended periods (Grasha and Yangarber-Hicks 2000). The visual images through their graphical attractions also help drive home the ideas they represent into the students' long term memory (Read and Barnsley 1977). However, on the other hand, when the critical concepts and rules are learned in a direct manner with the teacher presenting the items point by point on transparencies or PowerPoint slides, the students working with them learn passively and act as receivers of information (Grabe and Grabe 1998, Grasha and Yangarber-Hicks 2000). A teacher who desires to teach inductively, that is, helping students to uncover what is to be learned, (Grabe and Grabe 1998:53) needs to manipulate these two presentation tools in ways that can turn them into effective aids to facilitate inductive

teaching. Whether these two tools can be manipulated to help the teacher teach inductively is worth investigating.

This paper examines the extent to which transparencies and PowerPoint slides can be used as teaching aids for inductive teaching. The reactions of the teacher-researcher in using transparencies and PowerPoint slides in two different classrooms to help inductive teaching are examined first. The effect of the two visual aids from the point of view of the students will then be reported and pedagogical implications will also be discussed.

2. The Course In This Study

In this study, the teacher-researcher taught a Communication Skills course on Computer Studies to two classes (with 20 students in each class) of year 2 students majoring in Computer Studies in a university for 14 weeks. In this course, students were taught how to conduct a technical interview and write a technical proposal. Mini-lectures were given on the communication skills needed in conducting a technical interview and writing a proposal. Key points in the mini-lectures were put on transparencies or PowerPoint slides (with a font size of 18 points) to help the students understand the content of the mini-lectures.

3. The Research Method

What visual aids to use in the study

In this study, the teacher-researcher taught the same course on Communication skills in Computer Studies to two classes of Computer students. In one class, the teacher used transparencies as visual aids only. In the other class, the teacher-researcher mainly used PowerPoint slides throughout all lessons. However, at times when the teacher-researcher felt that the PowerPoint slides failed to help her achieve the teaching effect desired during the lessons, she switched back to transparencies to help her teach inductively. Thus, both transparencies and PowerPoint slides were used in the second classroom.

Research instruments

Diaries and questionnaires were used to investigate the opinions of the teacher-researcher and the students on the use of transparencies and PowerPoint slides as visual aids to

facilitate inductive teaching and learning. The teacher-researcher kept diaries of what happened and how she felt in each lesson in each classroom throughout the fourteen weeks. The students in the two classes were given a questionnaire to complete at the end of the course to seek their opinions on the effectiveness of the use of the transparencies and PowerPoint slides. The questionnaire asked them whether they preferred the use of transparencies or PowerPoint slides and they were asked to give answers to open-ended questions asking them about the reasons for their choice.

Data analysis

The diary entries were analysed using the methodological framework laid out by Bailey (1990) and Nunan (1992). Patterns were identified while examining the data (Bailey 1992:219) and the data was analysed using the key concept technique, which is a "key word analysis generating categories from the statements made" (Nunan 1992:146). The questionnaire results were analysed by calculating the frequency of the responses. The open-ended answers were analysed by using the content analysis method and the results were categorized.

4. Findings

What the teacher-researcher did and felt in the two classrooms

What the teacher-researcher did and felt in the two classrooms as regards eliciting ideas from students, reviewing main points and figuring out features and principles from samples can be seen in the diary entries.

In the first classroom

Eliciting ideas from the students

In the first classroom, the teacher-researcher only used transparencies to help her teach inductively. The teacher-researcher viewed mini-lecturing as an interactive process with the students rather than a teacher-directed monologue. She also viewed learning as an inductive process. Thus, she chose to elicit ideas from the students by asking questions rather than presenting information to the students point by point directly. Because the students responded spontaneously in unrehearsed language, it was impossible to predict what answers they would give. Thus, when using transparencies

as visual aids, the teacher-researcher usually covered each transparency with a piece of paper. The piece of paper was cut into strips covering each point on the transparency. When a student gave an answer that matched the point on the transparency, the teacher-researcher turned back the slip of paper covering that point. This gave the student a sense of achievement because the uncovered answer confirmed that the student had given a correct answer. Thus, the slips of paper were turned back according to the order of the points raised by the students instead of following the sequence of points originally prepared on the transparency. The teacher-researcher wrote about how she felt in her diary on 30/9.

The students were so excited. It was just like playing a Bingo game. Each of them was so eager to give an answer that matched the one covered by a slip of paper. They racked their brains for the right answers. When a student saw his or her answer appearing after a slip of paper was turned over, he or she had a great sense of achievement and tried harder to guess what the points covered by the remaining slips of paper were. I was also very excited to see the students so eager to give answers.

Reviewing main points

After speaking on a topic, the teacher-researcher usually covered up all the main points and the sub-points, which were the explanations and examples, with the slips of paper and reviewed the main points with the students. The students had to give the main points upon elicitation. When a main point was raised by a student, the teacher-researcher turned back the slip of paper covering that point. When all the main points were given by the students, a framework of main points was shown on the screen, leaving the explanations and examples covered. The students could thus have a firm grasp of all the main points after listening to the topic. The teacher-researcher expressed her feelings in her diary on 24/11.

I like this way of reviewing the main points with the students. Since the main points were uncovered in the same positions as where the students first saw them on the transparency, the students were thus very easily helped to recall what each main point was.

Figuring out features and principles from samples

In teaching the students theories or principles, she tended to allow the students to discover copious rules and paradigms inductively through examples or samples. Thus, the teacher-researcher first showed the students the examples or samples

of a piece of writing and asked the students to identify special features on them. Then she put a blank write-on transparency on top of the transparency containing examples or samples. When a student discovered a special feature, the teacher-researcher highlighted that feature on the write-on transparency immediately with a red or blue transparency pen. This gave the student a sense of achievement because the feature that he or she raised was accepted as correct. After the students had attempted to give some answers, the teacher-researcher replaced the write-on transparency with an overlay with coloured lines highlighting important or interesting features in the examples or samples. This either helped to confirm what the students had mentioned or to give clues to the students to further figure out the remaining answers. The teacher-researcher expressed her excitement in her diary on 30/11.

The transparency is such a powerful tool! I can underline and draw things on the write-on transparencies so easily. I can also conveniently replace write-on transparencies with the prepared overlays any time I like. The overlays are wonderful. They can help simplify complex information into layers, attain a step-by-step build-up or effect a breakdown of the layout.

In the second classroom

The effectiveness of the two visual aids as perceived by the teacher-researcher will be reported below. When the teacher-researcher used PowerPoint slides in order to bring about different teaching effects, she saw the advantages and disadvantages of this visual aid.

Eliciting ideas from the students

On 2/10, the teacher-researcher wrote in her diary: The colour on the slides was good. There was no need to turn over the slips of paper on the transparency. The points came out one by one from the left to the right on each slide. The appearance of the things projected was better than those on the transparency. However, when I elicited answers from the students and when a student gave an answer that was far down on the list, I could not go to that point immediately. Thus, I had to elicit all answers from the students first before showing them all the points in the order they appeared on the list. I was not happy about the teaching effect this had on the students. I could have easily achieved all these effects with the use of transparencies.

Reviewing main points

On 26/11, she expressed in her diary the frustrations over what PowerPoint slides could not do for her:

I wished to review the main points with the students, but I could not show only the main points and hide the explanations or examples on the PowerPoint slide. I was forced to go through every line again. It was so frustrating!

Figuring out features and principles from samples

On 2/12, she experienced similar frustrations again.

I asked the students to discover some special features on a section of a sample proposal as shown on a slide. When a student brought up a feature, I wished to highlight it on the slide immediately, but it was too complicated to do so without wasting the students' time. So, I had to rely on the slides with highlighted features prepared before class. I did not wish to personally present the highlighted features one by one according to the order they appeared on the slides. I wanted the students to discover the features by themselves. However, I knew I could not easily change the order of the prepared highlights on the spot according to the order in which the students brought up the features. Thus, when I elicited features from the students, I tried to ask very specific questions attempting to closely guide the students to bring up the features according to the order of the highlights on the prepared slide. However, the students did not follow the prompts and raised the features in a random order according to the sequence of their discovery instead. I was very frustrated because PowerPoint slides could not help me manipulate the order of the features raised by the students to bring about the teaching effects I desired.

To sum up, though the teacher-researcher found the PowerPoint slides visually attractive, she felt handicapped when using them. The software could not provide her with the functions that she could easily obtain from the transparencies to achieve the teaching effects desired in helping the students learn inductively.

The effectiveness of using transparencies and PowerPoint slides from the point of view of the students

Responses from the students in the first classroom

In the first classroom, only transparencies were used as

visual aids. When the students were asked which visual aid they preferred in the questionnaire, 61 % reported that they preferred transparencies and 39% said that they preferred PowerPoint slides. In other words, transparencies were more valued than PowerPoint slides.

The reasons why they preferred transparencies were as follows:

- There is no need to waste time setting up the computer.
- It is easy for the teacher to write some extra notes on the transparencies.
- It is easy to go back to look at the previous transparencies and swap the transparencies.
- The teacher can use slips of paper to cover up points on the transparency and focus on the uncovered parts.
- It is flexible when showing points. There is no need to show the points sequentially. When there are many answers to one question, we do not need to answer according to the order of the points on the transparency.
- The teacher can effectively use slips of paper to help us review main points.
- The overlays with coloured lines help the teacher explain difficult concepts effectively.

The reasons that the students gave as regards why they preferred PowerPoint slides were as follows:

- PowerPoint slides are more attractive, eye-catching and visually more comfortable.
- They are clearer than transparencies.
- Various kinds of things can be shown.
- They are easy to control.

Responses from the students in the second classroom

As for the groups of students to whom both transparencies and PowerPoint slides were shown, 33% of them preferred transparencies and 67% of them preferred PowerPoint slides. In other words, they preferred PowerPoint slides more.

The reasons given for preferring transparencies were as follows:

- It is flexible and easy to handle.
- It is easy to add points to the list on a transparency.
- The teacher can easily explain the items by writing on it.

- When the teacher tried to elicit answers from us, the slips of paper put over lists of items on the transparencies helped the teacher effectively show the answers given randomly by us.
- The teacher can effectively use the slips of paper to help us revise the main points under a topic, skipping the examples.
- The colourful overlays help to unfold information gradually and effectively.

The reasons given for preferring PowerPoint slides were as follows:

- They are colourful
- They are attractive.
- They are interesting.
- They are visually clearer when projected on the screen.
- They look more professional.
- They are more efficient.
- The slides are always in the right position.
- The lines on the slides can move on the screen.

Though the preferences of the two classes were slightly different, the reasons that they gave for preferring transparencies and PowerPoint slides were similar. Those reasons given for preferring transparencies were related to learning effectiveness whereas the reasons for preferring PowerPoint slides were related to visual comforts. Both groups felt deeply that the teacher's use of transparencies helped them to learn better but could not give any more reasons concerning the strengths of the PowerPoint slides show apart from a general comment that it was more visually entertaining to a certain extent.

However, for the group to which only transparencies were shown, they valued the positive teaching effects brought about by the transparencies more than the visual effects although they were not exposed to any PowerPoint slides show throughout this course. As regards the group to which both transparencies and PowerPoint slides were shown, the students were impressed by the attractive and colourful PowerPoint slides show and also valued the visual effects more than the learning effectiveness they obtained from the transparencies presentation.

5. Discussion

From the response of the students, it can be seen that a PowerPoint slide show is no doubt a visually more attractive

aid than a transparency. Though transparencies can be used to achieve desirable teaching effects when the teacher teaches inductively as demonstrated by the teacher-researcher, they are not as colourful as PowerPoint slides. Key stoning (when the top of the projected image is wider than the bottom) may also occur. It would seem likely that PowerPoint will soon replace transparencies as a visual aid for presentation and teaching.

A PowerPoint slide show is certainly an effective presentation tool. Much has been written about the functions of PowerPoint slides (Costa 2000, Crooks 2001, Kelly 1999, Martha 1997, Parks 1999, Reding 1995, and the websites on the reference list). They can present complex computer graphics and animation. The presenter has access to visually stimulating tools such as animation and simulations, which are useful in demonstrating difficult concepts that words and static diagrams cannot easily convey. The presenter also has an extensive range of drawing tools and shapes to choose from to supplement the slides. Attractive fonts or different typesstyles can also be made with a host of different colours to attract the students' attention to more difficult words or important things. Both texts and images can be displayed on the same slide. Some simple drawing tools are provided so that the presenter can use the mouse to circle or draw arrows between texts and images on the slide. The slides make presentations more fun to give and more interesting to listen to. They are effective tools for deductive presentations. However, they are not yet effective tools especially for inductive teaching because they foster passive learning. They have rigid formats and are less open to incorporating ideas not on the teacher's outline. Some operating skills and experience are required if the teacher wants to digress from the planned slide sequence. The slides are not well suited to drawing impromptu sketches. Creating new slides on the spot is possible but clumsy and there are difficulties finding the right visuals if the teacher wishes to go back and forth with the slides.

To help to solve the problems related to the use of PowerPoint slides and to facilitate inductive teaching, the following temporary actions may be taken, but there is no guarantee that these actions will help to bring about the desired teaching effects.

The first problem is that logical sequencing of the PowerPoint programme does not benefit a more proactive approach in the pedagogy, for example when the teacher elicits ideas from the students on a list or the features that they can

identify on a proposal sample. There may be two ways to solve the problem:

- (1) The teacher can ask specific questions to closely guide the students to raise points on a list or highlighted features on a proposal sample according to the order of those that appear on the PowerPoint slides. However, the students often do not follow the prompts. They may raise the points or features in a random order according to the sequence of their discovery. In such a situation, the desired teaching effects cannot be brought about.
- (2) The teacher can also switch over to using a transparency with the points covered up by slips of paper in lieu of a PowerPoint slide to achieve the purpose. This may work if there are two screens in the classroom though it is inevitable that the transparency will appear less attractive than the PowerPoint slide when they are put side by side in front of the students. However, there is usually only one screen in the classroom. The projector is sometimes hung from the ceiling and cannot be covered up easily. If the projector showing the PowerPoint slides is not turned off and the transparency is projected over a blank slide, the words on the transparency will be blurred by the light projected onto the screen. The visual effect is not desirable. If the projector is turned off in order to show the transparency, it will take a long time for the projector to re-function when it is turned on again to show subsequent PowerPoint slides.

The second problem is related to the inability of the slides to hide the explanations and examples when the teacher reviews the main points with the students. To solve this problem, the teacher can prepare a follow-up PowerPoint slide which only contains the main points, leaving out the examples under the main points, to help the students review the key ideas. However, because the main points are not in the same position as where the students first saw them on the previous slide, it is difficult for the students to recall what each main point is. Besides, when the students get stuck, it is impossible to show the removed explanations and examples on this slide again as hints to help them recall the main points.

Thus, it is necessary for long-term remedial actions to be taken to make PowerPoint slides become more effective teaching tools especially for inductive teaching. To achieve this purpose, the following points need to be taken into consideration. While it is necessary to keep the features that bring about the attractiveness of PowerPoint slides, it is more important to reduce the inherent limitations in the present

PowerPoint software in order to make the slide an effective teaching medium rather than just a visually attractive aid. (1) The programmers need to work out some ways to build in a function so that the points on a list can be shown in random order as desired by the teacher. (2) A function should also be built in so that sub-points can be hidden easily leaving behind the headings and then re-shown when necessary to help the students review main points. (3) Though there are functions to help the presenter add and draw things on the spot, the process should be simplified so as to increase the convenience of the aid. (4) The process of jumping from one slide to another while omitting those in between also needs to be simplified so as to allow greater flexibility of use of the software to achieve the desired teaching effects.

It is hoped that with more functions built into the PowerPoint software, PowerPoint slides will become effective tools not only for deductive presentation but also for inductive teaching. In this way, the students will fully benefit from this visual aid and their learning will be enhanced.

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Student-teachers' Beliefs on Primary Science Curriculum Orientations

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Curriculum orientations are beliefs about what a school curriculum should achieve and how teaching, learning and assessment should occur. Five major orientations to design science curricula were identified. They are academic, cognitive processes, society-centred, humanistic, and technological. This article reports the results of a survey on the primary science curriculum orientations of 437 pre-service student-teachers studying 2 primary education programmes. A 41-item questionnaire was developed to measure their beliefs about these five curriculum orientations. Statistical results show that the instrument is reliable and the student-teachers strongly believed in the cognitive-processes orientation, but they generally did not reject the other four orientations. The effects of science background knowledge, teaching practice experiences and the nature of science modules studied were tested. Implications of these findings are discussed.

師訓學員對小學科學課程取向的信念

課程取向是指有關學校課程的目標、教學方法與評估的信念。本文界定了五種有關科學課程的主要取向，它們是學術取向、認知過程取向、社會中心取向、人文取向和科技取向。本文報告一個對小學科學課程取向的調查研究，調查的對象是分別修讀兩個教育課程的437位職前師訓學員，調查工具是一份有41項問題的問卷，統計結果顯示工具的信度頗高，而學員最認同認知過程取向，不過他/她們亦不排斥其他四種取向。同時亦測試了有關學員的科學知識背景、教學實習的經驗和曾修讀科學單元的性質等因素可能產生的影響。從以上研究結果所得出的啟示都會在本文作出討論。

The most fundamental concern of schooling is curriculum (Ornstein, 1982). Teacher beliefs about curriculum design may be defined as a set of value premises from which decisions about curriculum objectives, content, organization, teaching strategies, learning activities and assessment modes are made (Cheung & Ng, 2000). Undoubtedly, teacher beliefs about science curriculum design affect the quality of science education in schools. If a teacher does not believe that a particular design is valuable, the implementation of the curriculum may be not effective at all. The teacher may even alter the intended curriculum to make it more congruent with his or her own belief systems or classroom context. Recent studies about the teaching of science topics in General Studies (GS) have found there was conflict between the demand of the intended curriculum and the actual teaching approach

adopted by teachers (So, Tang & Ng, 2000). It is stipulated in the General Studies syllabus (Curriculum Development Council, 1997) that teachers are strongly advised to use pupil-centred teaching methods and to involve the active participation of pupils through meaningful learning activities. However, teachers did not employ a great variety of teaching strategies especially those teaching strategies that encouraged active pupils' participation. Although the learner-centred teaching method had been stressed and promoted, there was little evidence that it had been implemented in average primary classrooms (Tang, So & Ng, 2000).

Thus, developing a Curriculum Orientation Inventory for primary science with good psychometric properties is critically important because it can empirically identify the orientation to curriculum held by samples of General Studies

teachers and student-teachers. If they are found to support only a few curriculum orientations, then appropriate interventions, such as in-service programmes, can be planned by educators so as to redress the balance. Furthermore, the Inventory can be used to monitor teachers' changes of belief after implementing a new curriculum and thus curriculum reform in primary science education can be facilitated.

After an extensive review of both curriculum literature and science education literature (Bybee & DeBoer, 1994; Eisner & Wallace, 1974; Harms & Yager, 1981; Kemmis, Cole & Suggett, 1983; Klein, 1986; McNeil, 1996; Miller, 1983; Prosser, Trigwell & Taylor, 1994; Roberts, 1995; Watts & Bently, 1994), five distinct orientations to science curriculum were identified. They are academic, cognitive processes, society-centred, humanistic, and technological. The salient features of the five orientations on primary science curriculum are summarized in Table 1. The present study was guided by the following aims:

1. to develop a Curriculum Orientation Inventory for measuring student-teachers' orientations to primary science curriculum in General Studies;
2. to test the reliability of the Inventory items for the future study of meta-orientations to primary science curriculum;
3. to find any possible factors affecting the beliefs of student-teachers on primary science curriculum orientations.

Five Major Orientations to Primary Science Curriculum

It is important to note that no science curriculum reflects only one orientation. "Pure" form as presented in Table 1 is seldom found. Furthermore, the five orientations are not exhaustive. A vocational orientation, for example, was deliberately not included because it was not relevant to primary science. Owing to limitations of space, we cannot describe all the five curriculum orientations in detail here, but a summary of each orientation are given below.

Academic Curriculum

This is the oldest and most widely used orientation in science curriculum. Academic rationalism advocates that the curriculum should be based on the storehouse of knowledge

which has enabled humankind to advance civilization (Klein, 1986). They believe that content is more important than process. Science learning is perceived and practiced as the learning of scientific facts, laws and theories. Traditional topics are mainly selected on the basis of the structures of scientific knowledge (Raven, 1970). The curriculum content is organized on the basis of the logical relationships among various scientific concepts. For example, the spiral arrangement of topics in the old Primary Science Curriculum put the topics "Heat" and "Thermal expansion and contraction" in junior primary levels and "Thermal conduction, convection and radiation" in senior primary levels. In the academic orientation, pupils usually play a passive role in their learning process. This practice tends to encourage the use of didactic teaching and learning approaches. Practical activities are primarily used to illustrate or demonstrate known concepts. Pupils are tested for acquisition of what is known in science.

Cognitive Processes Curriculum

Unlike the academic orientation, this orientation emphasizes science processes rather than contents. Wellington (1989, p.15) summarized five arguments that most science educators put forward for a process-led science curriculum:

- The content-led approach has failed.
- 'Science for all abilities' necessitates a process-based curriculum.
- The information explosion has made the teaching of facts highly questionable.
- Scientific facts date too quickly to form the basis for science education.
- Skills, particularly transferable skills, are more relevant to pupils than knowledge.

The cognitive processes orientation is based on the inductive empiricist view of science (Finley, 1983). The process enthusiasts believe that there is a so-called scientific method, and pupils best learn science by thinking as scientists and engaging in hands-on practical work. Thus, this curriculum orientation stresses the importance of developing a fundamental understanding of, and ability to use, the methods of scientific inquiry. Pupils are expected to acquire various scientific process skills such as defining problems, making observations, forming hypotheses, controlling variables, performing experiments, analyzing data and making

conclusion. Actually, these skills do not seem to be unique in science because they are also important study skills in other academic disciplines or problem solving skills in everyday life. Teachers usually assess pupils' performance in science investigations by observations, practical tests, or written reports. Questions are set in such a way that pupils are not required to recall factual knowledge to answer them (Mannering, 1990).

Society-Centred Curriculum

This orientation views the school science curriculum as a vehicle for facilitating social changes. Adherents of the society-centred curriculum believe that school science has meaning only in a social context (Carin, 1971). Science concepts are studied only as they relate to the problems being studied. Science is not studied as a single identity, it is studied because it is essential for understanding and developing possible resolutions, say, to a local pollution problem. Science education should try to empower pupils to build a better world and to promote active citizenship. Teaching content is mainly issue-based (Hofstein & Yager, 1982; Watts et al, 1997). Science curriculum emphasizes 'real life' problem solving and the integrative nature of the knowledge base (Watt et al., 1997).

For this curriculum orientation, school science is usually presented as a questioning process. The curriculum content is organized into modules and progression through the modules is guided by asking questions. Teachers are expected to teach science subject matter beyond facts and concepts and lift it up to the values level (Harmin, Kirschenbaum & Simon, 1970). Pupils are provided with learning opportunities to analyze important societal issues, weigh alternatives, and make decisions. Pupils often engage in action projects and simulations that emphasize collaborative work, group experiences, and development of pupils' critical consciousness and sense of social responsibility. To assess pupils' performance, a teacher usually looks for evidence of pupils' contribution to action and their critical responses to a particular science-based societal issue. Pupils are often not competitively graded, and peer assessment is also a commonplace.

Humanistic Curriculum

This orientation to curriculum is based on humanistic

psychology (Bybee & Welch, 1972). Rutherford (1972, p.57) asserted that a humanistic science course must meet the following three criteria:

1. the content of the course must make substantial connections with the humanities,
2. it must focus on the human factor in science, and
3. the course itself must be humanely taught.

The major premise of the humanistic orientation is that students should be the crucial source of science curriculum. Proponents of this pupil-centred approach to curriculum design are self-actualizers who believe that the function of the school science curriculum is to provide each individual pupil with intrinsically rewarding experiences that contribute to personal liberation and development (McNeil, 1996; Moheno, 1993). Topics are based on pupils' everyday experience and concerns, such as science in the playground and electricity at home.

Humanistic science teachers pay attention to pupils' prior knowledge. They try to present materials imaginatively to facilitate pupils learning and prefer interdisciplinary teaching rather than rigid subject differentiation. Pupils construct their own knowledge through experience and opportunities to discover and inquire. Humanistic science teachers like to use a historical approach to science teaching, as well as anthropomorphic and animistic explanations (Watts & Bentley, 1994). To show that science learning is fun and rewarding, teachers also like to teach scientific concepts through popular science stories, context-based learning activities (Stinner, 1995) and drama even though traditional science topics such as safety in the laboratory, electricity and magnetism (Hicks & Stone, 1986) and fermentation (Campbell et al., 1988) are involved. Alternative assessment methods, such as portfolio, direct observation, self-assessment and peer assessment, are preferred to traditional objective tests. Humanistic science educators believe that, in addition to pupils' intellectual achievements, their personal growth and satisfaction and appreciation of the role of human factor in scientific development should also be assessed.

Technological Curriculum

Supporters of this orientation believe that technology, such as medicine, transportation, building, communication etc. should serve as a connector between science and society.

George (1981, p.25) argued "the impact of science on our lives is felt through technology rather than directly through pure science". Technological teachers believe that pupils best learn science through the teaching of scientific concepts in a technological context (Dreyfus, 1987). Furthermore, pupils are expected to develop abilities of technological design and are competent in using information technology. This orientation to curriculum has been heavily influenced by behaviorism (Eisner & Vallance, 1974; McNeil, 1996). Proponents of the technological orientation strongly believe that good teaching requires getting science subject matter across to pupils efficiently and effectively. Thus, curriculum designers stress systematic planning and focus on finding efficient means to a set of predetermined learning objectives. All the intended learning objectives must be written in operational terms. The organization of curriculum content is governed by the logical sequence of the objectives. Technological science curricula recommend teachers to use teaching strategies such as computer assisted instruction (Good & Berger, 1998) and mastery learning (Hashim & Chan, 1997). Traditional objective test are often used to assess student performance.

Method

A Primary Science Curriculum Orientation Inventory was designed based on the conceptual framework shown in Table 1 and a previous study on secondary science education (Cheung & Ng, 2000, Cheung 2000a). For each orientation, items were designed to measure its important aspects on assumptions, intent, content, organization, teaching and learning strategies, and assessment. Each aspect was measured by at least one item and each item was selected for its ability to be distinguished from the other four orientations. For example, the item "Science curriculum should provide students with opportunities to do practical activities" is important but was not included because more than one orientation support this kind of curriculum design. Altogether, 41 items were constructed. All items were written in Chinese and positively phrased. An opportunity sample of 10 student-teachers were invited to comment on the clarity of the Inventory. Each item was on an eight-point bipolar rating scale (1 = strongly disagree and 8 = strongly agree). Then, three

convenience samples of student-teachers studying 2 full-time primary education programmes were invited to answer the Inventory at the last lesson of their science modules. Group 1 was a sample of the first-year students of a 2-year Certificate in Education programme. They had already completed 4 weeks of teaching practice and the science module they studied aimed at equipping them with the necessary pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) to teach General Studies. Group 2 was the first-year student of the next cohort of the same programme studying the same science module. The only difference was they did not have any experience in teaching practice. Group 3 was the first-year students of a 4-year Bachelor of Primary Education programme. They did not have any experience in teaching practice and the science module belonged to the General Education domain. The content focused on science process skills and some science-technology-society (STS) topics.

Using the SPSS programme, the reliability of student-teacher responses to individual items and to the five subscales was examined on the basis of item-total correlations and Cronbach's alphas, respectively. Only those items with an item-total correlation greater than 0.5 were retained.

Validity of measurement is the extent to which the instrument measures what it is designed to measure (Wiersma, 1995, p.313). An effective indicator of validity is the construct validity. However, the sample size of this study was not large enough for performing confirmatory factor analysis to test the construct validity of the Inventory. Only content validity was ascertained in this study. Content validation was achieved through extensive review of literature and by designing items that were tailored for specific aspects of each orientation so that the content of each individual item measured what was claimed to be measured.

One-way within-subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine whether the means of the five subscales were statistically different. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed by the SPSS programme to evaluate the effects of science background knowledge, experience in teaching practice and the nature of science modules studied on the student-teachers' beliefs about curriculum design. If the MANOVA tests indicated that there were statistically significant effects, then ANOVAs on each subscale scores were conducted as follow-up tests, using Bonferroni method to control Type I error across the tests.

Multiple pairwise comparisons were also conducted if necessary.

Results and Discussions

Reliability Tests and Descriptive Statistics

Reliability tests indicated that 3 of the 41 items had an item-total correlation less than 0.5 and thus were discarded. Table 2 shows the remaining 38 items. The item-total correlations of these items ranged from 0.50 to 0.67 and the Cronbach's alpha of the five subscales varied from 0.84 to 0.86, giving support for the reliability of the instrument.

The mean and standard deviation of each item are also shown in Table 2. The means varied between 4.73 and 6.12 out of a maximum of 8, indicating that primary student-teachers generally valued all the five seemingly antagonistic curriculum orientations. The standard deviations were also not too restricted. ANOVA indicated that the differences among the five means were statistically significant (Wilks lambda = 0.67, $F(4,433) = 53.65$, $p < 0.001$). Paired-samples t-tests revealed that only the mean of the society-centred orientation was not significantly different to the means of humanistic and technological orientations respectively.

The mean on the cognitive process subscale ranked highest and the mean of academic subscale ranked lowest (Table 2). Cheung & Ng (2000) had similar ranking on the cognitive process in their studies on secondary science teachers but quite different ranking about the academic orientation. However, they did not investigate why science teachers were most enthusiastic about cognitive process orientation. We try to explore some possible explanations from interviewing 4 student-teachers from each group. In the first half of the interview, they were asked to elaborate what was their favorable primary science curriculum in terms of aims, contents, teaching and learning strategies, and assessment. Then they were asked to study and comment on the conceptual framework in Table 1.

All 12 student-teachers considered the most important aim of science education in primary curriculum was to enable pupils to acquire those high-order skills such as problem solving and critical thinking. They pointed out science was the most appropriate subject in the whole primary curriculum to enable pupils to master skills such as use of evidence,

decision making, logical thinking and analytical reasoning. These views were definitely cognitive processes. They had reservation on teaching too much scientific facts, principles, laws and theories to primary pupils. Some of them said many science concepts were too difficult and abstract for primary pupils. Two even said they themselves found the science topics in General Studies very difficult. Those with teaching practice experience expressed it was very difficult to demonstrate science concepts with experiments due to limitation of resources in primary schools. This probably explained why academic orientation was least supported in the present study. Most of them stressed on the importance of quoting examples from everyday life experiences, which reflected the humanistic point of view. They also pointed out science in primary level should pay a very important role in environmental education and health education (a society-centred perspective). Concerning the teaching and learning strategies, they all agreed that pupils should pay an active role in the learning process. Pupils should be given opportunity to actively engage in practical activities which did not just simply demonstrate scientific facts but should focus on developing those transferable problem solving skills through the learning of science.

It was quite strange that they seldom mentioned the technological aspects of the curriculum. Only student-teachers from group 2 said General Studies was a suitable subject through which pupils could learn and applied information technologies. They agreed that General Studies syllabus should cover topics about the applications of science but they had reservation on quoting examples about industrial applications because they did not have adequate training and they did not think the pupils could understand.

Concerning the conceptual framework in Table 1, most of them did not object to any one orientation. They re-emphasized the inquiry nature of science was the most valuable element that primary pupils could learn through the study of science topics in General Studies. Some of them were reluctant to the didactic teaching approach of academic orientation. However, the student-teachers with teaching practice experience raised the point that the actual mode of assessment in schools was still mainly focusing on pupils' mastery of science knowledge. They thought it was difficult to access how pupils use scientific knowledge to interpret societal problems or pupils' acquisition of science process

skills. The assessment mode of academic orientation was still the commonest in actual primary school context.

The effects of science subject knowledge, teaching practice experience and the nature of the science modules studied

So, Cheng & Tsang (1998) found that science subject knowledge was perceived by General Studies teachers as one of the most problematic items. In the present study, we defined studying science stream in secondary 5 level to be an indicator to differentiate the science subject knowledge. One-way MANOVA indicated this factor was not statistically significant (Table 3). Although a slightly significant difference was obtained for the cognitive-process orientation in the follow-up ANOVA test ($p = 0.011$), it was rejected due to family wise error rate set at 0.05/5 or 0.01 using the Bonferroni method to control for Type I error across the five tests.

For the test of the effect of teaching practice experience, we split group 1 into 2 subgroups according to whether they had taught General Studies during their teaching practices or not, and compared them together with group 2. Although student-teachers from group 1 did mention a number of practical difficulties from their teaching practice experiences, the one-way MANOVA did not indicate any significant difference among these 3 groups (Table 4).

For the test of the effect of nature of science modules studied, we combined group 1 and group 2 because they were studying the same science module, and then compared with group 3. The one-way MANOVA indicated there was significant difference, Wilks lambda = 0.90, $F(5,431) = 9.60$, $p < 0.001$ (Table 5). ANOVAs on each subscale were conducted as follow-up test to the MANOVA. Only the academic scores were statistically significant after using the Bonferroni method to control for Type I error with p set at 0.01.

The nature and the content of the two science modules were very different. This can be reflected from their synopsis (HKIEd, 2000):

- *"The module aims to provide student teachers with the necessary background knowledge and practical skills for the teaching of science related topics in General Studies."*

— Synopsis of the module studied by Groups 1 and 2

- *"This module provides an opportunity for students to be*

exposed to the main concepts, skills and processes in science. Using an integrated approach, the module explores the practical, social, economic and environmental implications of science as well as technological applications."

— Synopsis of the module studied by Groups 3

The contents of the first module were mainly academic oriented while those of the second module were towards the cognitive processes, society-centred and technological orientations. We do not think studying an academic oriented module will enhance one's belief in that orientation. However, we think the first science module enhanced groups 1 and 2 student-teachers' confidence in teaching those science topics in General Studies. It is not easy to explain why other orientations showed no significant differences even the modules were also quite different in these aspects. One possible explanation is these samples of student-teachers had already had a firm beliefs on what roles science education played in the primary curriculum. They valued the cognitive-processes, as well as the humanistic, society-centered and technological orientations disregard the nature of the science modules they had studied. Their views are in echo with the proposed learning targets of the new General Studies curriculum in the current education reform. In the interview, some student-teachers said their perception on primary curriculum was actually affected by issues and topics of educational reform studied in other education modules. Curriculum development Council (2000) states that through the learning of science topics in General Studies, pupils will acquire knowledge, skills, values and attitudes related to

- show interest in and develop skills to explore, investigate and evolve solutions for scientific problems;
- make good use of resources and be committed to environmental conservation;
- develop and understanding of the impact of science and technology on human society and the environment
- acquire an understanding of their growth and development,, and develop a caring concern for the well-being etc.

Curriculum reform is a long-term process. There are at least three important changes concerning teachers in the reforming process. They are changes in teaching materials, teaching methodologies and teachers' beliefs. Among these, we think the changes in teachers' beliefs are the most difficult

to achieve. It is encouraging to find student-teachers' beliefs in this study was in alignment with the needs of proposed General Studies curriculum. However, the impact of beliefs on teachers' actions is inevitably mediated by various contextual variables (Lederman & Zeidler, 1987). It is quite possibly General Studies teachers' beliefs are different from the student-teachers' beliefs identified in this study. Further studies in this direction are important so that appropriate interventions can be planned. For instance, if teachers are found to support only a few curriculum orientations, then appropriate in-service training programme could be organized to redress the balance.

Conclusion and Future Research

Five orientations to primary science curriculum were conceptualized in this study. A Primary Science Curriculum Orientation Inventory with significant reliability was developed. Student-teachers' beliefs on science curriculum design did not vary with their science background knowledge and teaching practice experience. They all valued the five orientations and ANOVA indicated that cognitive processes orientation was rated highest while academic orientation was rated lowest. Studying a module focusing on the pedagogical content knowledge of primary science could increase their rating scores on academic orientation, possibly because the module could enhance their competence in teaching the academic aspect of those science topics. Nevertheless, this did not affect their beliefs on other orientations.

The next step of this research is to collect General Studies teachers' views on curriculum design using the refined instrument developed in this study and explore any possible factors affecting their beliefs. It is important to note that no science curriculum reflects only one orientation. The "pure" form presentation in Table 1 is just for the purpose of clarity only. Miller (1983) reported, *"Most teachers do not adhere to one orientation. In fact, many teachers whom I have worked with tell me they like to draw on several orientations. In most cases, they work from a cluster of two or three orientations."* Millar called such clustering a meta-orientation. However, the literature was virtually void of research examining the measurement of the meta-orientation until recently Cheung (2000b) demonstrated how hierarchical confirmatory factor

analysis could be applied to tackle the problem. After accumulating enough responses from General Studies teachers, the existence of meta-orientation will be tested through the method of structural equation modeling and a more holistic view on teachers' beliefs on primary science curriculum can be obtained.

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Table 1: Primary Science Curriculum Orientations

Orientations	Assumption	Curriculum Intent	Curriculum Content	Curriculum Organisation	Teaching & Learning Strategy	Assessment
Academic	Science is a discipline knowledge.	Understand science subject matter. Prepare pupils to have adequate science knowledge for their study in secondary schools.	Factual and theoretical knowledge that reflects the spiral structure of various science topics.	A combination of topics in various science disciplines. Science concepts as the curriculum organizer.	Didactic. Pupils listen to teachers, read text, answer factual questions, watch demonstrations and practice hands-on skills.	Pupils' mastery of scientific knowledge.
Cognitive Process	Science is a process of inquiry.	Teach pupils how to learn science. Develop essential inquiry skills.	Scientific methods and science process skills.	Process-led modules.	Activity-centred, investigations and simulated activities. Pupils learn scientific concepts by discovery.	Pupils' acquisition of science process skills. Correct use of scientific methods
Society-centered	Science is a tool for improving our society.	Help pupils to become socially responsible citizens who contribute to the development of society. Understand science-related societal issues.	Science-based real world problems such as environmental pollution and energy shortage. Emphasize applications of science to societal problems, environmental concepts, ethics, values, decision-making and multidisciplinary studies.	Societal issues as the curriculum organizer	An issue-based approach. Action oriented. Multidisciplinary approach. Cooperative activities. Investigations to find out the interconnectedness of events, people and scientific phenomena. Decision-making exercises involving scientific knowledge in a social context. Use of community resources.	The effectiveness of pupils to use scientific knowledge to interpret societal problems. Ability to make well-reasoned decisions.
Humanistic	Science is a human form of knowledge and a tool for personal development.	Prepare pupils to utilize science for improving their own lives and for coping with an increasingly technological world. Understand the human nature of science. Integration of affective, cognitive and psychomotor objectives.	Select topics that pupils enjoy. Scientific knowledge that is seen as useful in everyday life. History of science. Implications of scientific advances for individuals.	Pupil needs and interests as the curriculum organiser. A flexible framework that allows pupils to select the order of learning.	Pupil-centered. Classroom as a joyful and facilitating environment. A constructivist view of learning. Contextual learning and storyline approach. Use of illustrations and explanations that involve feeling and emotion. Narrative activity reports.	Pupils' personal satisfaction, self-confidence, moral character and intellectual growth. Pupils' abilities to use science experiences to interpret and solve personal problems.
Technological	Technology is a connector between science and society.	Understand the technological aspects of science. Develop abilities of simple technological design and of locating and analyzing technology-related information.	Select contents based on the predetermined objectives. Contents focus on scientific knowledge in a technological context, technological designs and the effects of technology on society.	The logical order of learning objectives as the curriculum organiser.	Pupil learning must occur in systematic ways. Use of programmed instruction, mastery learning and instructional technologies such as computer, and audio/visual equipment	Pupils' abilities to apply scientific knowledge to the technological aspects of everyday life. Competence in handling information technology.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates

	Subscale/Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-total Correlation
Academic ($\alpha = 0.85$)		(5.21)	(0.93)	
6.	Science curriculum should be mainly based on subject contents (e.g. heat, electricity, photosynthesis, air and water etc.)	5.24	1.35	0.53
9.	Teachers should transmit the best and the most important subject contents to pupils, e.g. science concepts and theories etc	5.19	1.42	0.63
12.	The organization of each academic discipline should be governed by its logical structure of the science discipline.	5.49	1.19	0.59
20.	I believe that natural science should be the foundation of the science curriculum.	5.57	1.30	0.57
24.	Detail explanation of concepts in the textbook is the most important way of teaching science.	4.73	1.43	0.50
27.	Scientific concepts are the best curriculum organizer of science curriculum.	5.25	1.25	0.65
31.	Curriculum should let pupils accumulate piles of scientific terms.	4.78	1.48	0.58
38.	Primary science curriculum must provide pupils with enough knowledge so that they are prepared for more advanced study in secondary schools	5.45	1.41	0.63
Cognitive Processes ($\alpha = 0.85$)		(5.70)	(0.94)	
1.	I believe that the most valuable science curriculum contents are inquiry skills such as observing, hypothesizing, experimenting and controlling variables.	5.86	1.32	0.61
4.	The basic goal of science curriculum should be the development of pupils' cognitive skills, such as inferring and problem solving.	5.75	1.24	0.60
8.	The primary aim of carrying out scientific experiments in schools is to let pupils familiarize the process of scientific investigation	5.81	1.28	0.61
15.	The fundamental objective of the science curriculum should let pupils to develop essential inquiry skills.	5.93	1.31	0.68
23.	Curriculum should first let the pupils familiar with various kinds of investigation skills before teaching science concepts.	5.43	1.30	0.51
36.	The most important assessment should be on the pupils' acquisition of science process skills.	5.44	1.29	0.64
41.	I believe that primary science curriculum should be based on the methodologies of inquiry in sciences.	5.70	1.33	0.67
Society-centred ($\alpha = 0.84$)		(5.52)	(0.93)	
5.	Science curriculum should let pupils understand the closely association of the science-related societal issues.	5.85	1.23	0.54
11.	To assess pupils, teachers should encourage them to relate and apply their scientific knowledge to societal issues.	5.53	1.29	0.59
18.	Curriculum should enhance pupils' sense of responsibility to the society.	5.09	1.46	0.56
21.	Frequent discussion of the science related societal problems is the best way of learning science.	5.58	1.27	0.67
22.	Curriculum should emphasize the applications of science to societal problems	5.59	1.31	0.61
26.	Science curriculum contents should focus on societal problems such as genetic engineering and energy shortage.	5.35	1.44	0.57
29.	I believe that science is a tool to improve our society.	5.54	1.41	0.52
40.	Primary science curriculum should use societal issues as the organising centre of curriculum content, such as pollution and population explosion.	5.64	1.40	0.60
Humanistic ($\alpha = 0.86$)		(5.57)	(0.95)	
7.	Science curriculum should aim at promoting the personal growth of pupils.	5.40	1.33	0.57
14.	Science curriculum should be concerned with how a pupil's affective, cognitive and psychomotor development can be integrated.	5.73	1.26	0.62
17.	Curriculum should strengthen the affective development of the pupils, e.g. trying to express their feelings and personal opinion.	5.38	1.44	0.58
19.	The content of the curriculum should be closely related to our daily lives, e.g. electrical appliances and drugs etc.	6.12	1.30	0.61
28.	Curriculum should encourage pupils to read more books of science to enhance their affective development.	5.40	1.36	0.56
30.	I believe that science education should prepare pupils to utilize science for improving their own lives and for coping with an increasingly technological world	5.76	1.26	0.63
35.	Human development (e.g. confidence) should be one of the elements of assessment in primary science curriculum.	5.12	1.42	0.61
37.	Contextual teaching can upgrade pupils' learning interests and show the closely relation of science and our daily lives.	5.67	1.39	0.64
Technological ($\alpha = 0.84$)		(5.44)	(0.97)	
10.	The learning objectives of every lesson should be specific and unambiguous.	5.62	1.43	0.54
13.	The design of science curricula should focus on finding efficient teaching methods to achieve a set of predetermined learning objectives.	5.67	1.33	0.59
16.	The new General Studies curriculum should include more technology topics.	5.82	1.40	0.57
25.	Pupils should understand the importance of technologies, such as their contributions to transport, health and communication.	5.32	1.35	0.61
32.	The contents should depend on the priority of the learning objectives.	5.33	1.29	0.59
34.	The future General Studies curriculum should assess pupils' understanding of the relation of science and technology, as well as their competency in IT.	5.28	1.34	0.67
39.	Pupils should understand the applications of science in technology and industry.	5.04	1.43	0.61

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 8. Figures in brackets are estimates on subscale scores.

Table 3: Relationships Between Subscale Means and Science Knowledge Background

Curriculum Orientation	Studying science stream in S.5 (N = 113)	Studying non-science stream in S.5 (N = 308)	F	p
Academic	5.35	5.18	2.68	0.10
Cognitive processes	5.92	5.65	6.56	0.01
Society-centred	5.60	5.50	0.95	0.33
Humanistic	5.64	5.55	0.77	0.39
Technological	5.58	5.41	2.73	0.10

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 8. Wilks lambda = 0.98, $F(5,415) = 1.88$, $p = 0.10$

Table 4: Relationships Between Subscale Means and Teaching Practice (TP) Experience of Groups 1 and Groups 2

Curriculum Orientation	Teaching GS in TP (N = 220)	Not teaching GS in TP (N = 65)	No TP experience (N = 49)	F	p
Academic	5.25	5.47	5.38	1.54	0.22
Cognitive processes	5.67	5.85	5.78	0.91	0.41
Society-centred	5.47	5.64	5.58	0.90	0.41
Humanistic	5.58	5.75	5.52	1.00	0.37
Technological	5.45	5.63	5.64	1.37	0.26

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 8. Wilks lambda = 0.97, $F(10,654) = 0.96$, $p = 0.48$

Table 5: Relationships Between Subscale Means and Nature of Modules Studied

Curriculum Orientation	Module on PCK of primary science (N = 343)	Module on process skills and STS (N = 94)	F	p
Academic	5.33	4.89	16.63	< 0.001
Cognitive processes	5.73	5.72	0.01	0.91
Society-centred	5.53	5.59	0.23	0.63
Humanistic	5.60	5.55	0.16	0.69
Technological	5.52	5.28	4.60	0.03

Note: Means were based on a scale of 1 to 8. Wilks lambda = 0.90, $F(5,431) = 9.60$, $p < 0.001$

淺論如何透過兒童文學作品的閱讀與寫作提高資優兒童的創造力

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在資優兒童的類別中，有一類是創造力資優兒童，其中一些在寫作上有很突出的表現。本文以這類資優兒童為對象，探討如何通過兒童文學作品的閱讀與寫作提高他們的創造力。本文先闡述「資優兒童與創造力」的關係以及「兒童文學與創造力」的關係，然後敘述通過兒童文學作品的閱讀與寫作，來提高資優兒童的創造力的步驟，並附以相關的教學實例，以供參考。

Using Children Literature to Develop Creative Ability of Intelligent Students

There is a type of gifted children, who are creatively gifted. Some of them perform outstandingly in writing. Taking this type of children as the object of study, this paper explores how their creativity may be enhanced through reading and writing children's literature. This paper will first explain relationship between gifted children and creativity as well as that between children's literature and creativity. The steps of enhancing the creatively gifted children in the above way will be explicated, to be illustrated with an authentic teaching example.

目的及意義

資優兒童擁有特殊的潛質，必須有適當的培養，才可以使潛質得到充分的發展。在資優兒童的類別中，有一類是創造力資優兒童，其中一些在寫作上有很突出的表現。本文以這類資優兒童為對象，探討如何通過兒童文學作品的閱讀與寫作提高他們的創造力。本文首先為主要名詞釋義，然後闡述有關「資優兒童與創造力」的關係、「兒童文學與創造力」的關係，最後陳述通過兒童文學作品的閱讀與寫作，來提高資優兒童的創造力的步驟，並附以例子，作為參考。

(六) 在競技、機械技能或體能的協調有特出的天份。

根據這六方面來分類，則可把資優兒童分為較常見的四種類別：學術資優(the academically gifted)、創造力資優(creatively gifted)、社會心理能力資優(psychosocially gifted)和身體知覺能力資優者(kinesthetic giftedness)。資優兒童擁有獨特的氣質，詳見附件一。(中華資優教育會，2000；陳建全，2000；Tuttle, F.B., Becker, L.A.& Sousa, J.A., 1988)。

名詞釋義

資優兒童

香港教育統籌委員會(1990)在「第四號報告書」中，引用了美國聯邦教育局對資優的定義。「資優兒童」在以下一方面或幾方面具有突出的成就或潛能：

- (一) 智力經測定屬高水平；
- (二) 在某一學科有特強的資質；
- (三) 有獨創性思考，能夠提出很多創新的意見；
- (四) 在繪畫、戲劇、舞蹈、音樂等視覺及藝術方面特有天份；
- (五) 有領導同輩的天賦才能，在推動他人完成共同目標方面有極高的能力；

創造力

創造力(creativity)是指「根據一定目的，運用一切已知信息，產生某種新穎、獨特、有社會或個人價值的產品的能力。」(董奇，1999)。創造力包含「創造性想像」和「創造性思維」兩個主要成分。「創造力想像」，也就是想像力，是指結合以往的經驗，把自己抽離現實世界，而根據既定的目的或任務，在腦海中獨立地創造出新形象的心理過程。它影響著創造性活動的進行，有想像力不一定會有創造力，但是沒有了想像力，創造力便難以發揮。「創造性思維」是指人們在創造中所具有的思考模式，而這種思考模式一般是以擴散性思維(divergent thinking)為主。擴散性思維包括敏覺力(sensitivity)、流暢力(fluency)、變通力(flexibility)、獨

創力(originality)和精進力 (elaboration)¹ (董奇, 1999; 陳龍安, 1998; Guilford, 1967, 1977; Duffy, 1998)。

兒童文學

兒童文學是文學的一種，主要的對象是兒童。兒童文學是指能夠配合兒童的年齡特徵、適合他們欣賞、有益於他們身心健康發展的文學作品。兒童文學適合兒童閱讀；在文學範疇內，它是最富想像力的一種體裁；在教育方面，它陶冶兒童的心靈，豐富他們的情感，發展他們的智力，健全他們的人格思想 (陳子典, 1988; 林文寶等, 1999; Hunt, 1994)。

分析及討論

一. 寫作創造力資優兒童與創造力

資優兒童主要分為四個類別，其中一類為創造力資優(creatively gifted)。這類兒童在「創造性或生產性思考」方面表現非常突出。陳健全(2000) 引用Torrance的說法，指出創造力資優兒童必須具備擴散性思考。Tuttle等(1988)指出，創造力資優兒童除了具備一般資優兒童的特點外，還有一些很獨特的特徵(附件二)，其中一項特徵是他們在美術、音樂、寫作、戲劇和舞蹈等藝術方面有突出的表現。

本文主要探討怎樣透過兒童文學作品的閱讀與寫作，提高資優兒童的創造力。而這類資優兒童指的正是在寫作方面有特殊才能的創造力資優兒童 (筆者稱他們為「寫作創造力資優兒童」)。他們能夠迅速地學習、喜歡閱讀、享受閱讀、經常獨自閱讀圖書，喜愛和喜用大量的詞彙(附件二)，要提高他們的創造力，最好就是通過閱讀和寫作。

二. 兒童文學與創造力

優秀的兒童文學作品，尤其是童話、寓言和科幻作品，能夠提升兒童的創造力。Polette(1982)指出不少兒童文學作品的幻想世界廣大無邊，能夠讓兒童的想像力不斷擴展，從而刺激創造性思維，而想像力和創造性思維正是構成創造力的兩部分。寫作創造力資優兒童閱讀某個優秀的兒童文學作品後，會產生想像力，有了想像力，創造思維的品質便得以提升。接著，兒童再進行與該作品相配合的寫作活動，發展其創造性思維，以提高創造力。

中國年輕女詩人劉倩倩九歲時的一篇獲獎作品是很好的例子。她那時看了安徒生的<<賣火柴的女孩>>後，

產生了想像力，進而提升了創造力思維，最後寫成了詩歌<<你別問這是為甚麼>>(附件三)。劉倩倩想像自己在夢中與賣火柴的女孩見面，而在這首詩中，她發揮了創造思維中的「變通力」：她能夠從另一個角度去看<<賣火柴的女孩>>的故事，除了同情她，還會設想去幫助她；她也發揮了「獨創力」：她想到自己在夢中與賣火柴的女孩見面，與她分享自己的東西。這是個很獨特的構想。

三. 初步構想與試行經驗

本部分闡述如何透過兒童文學作品的閱讀與寫作，以提高「寫作創造力資優兒童」的創造力。筆者參考了Polette(1982), Duffy(1998)及Haslter(1991)，有關如何引導這類兒童閱讀和寫作的資料，加以整理，並加上筆者過去兩個暑假在學校裏，教導一些較聰明、語文水平較高、喜歡閱讀和寫作的三年級學生，閱讀兒童文學和寫作的經驗，概括擬定下列教學程序：

1. 定下教學目的

Polette(1982)指出為寫作創造力資優兒童設計閱讀和寫作活動時，一定要先定下教學目的，確定如何透過老師所設計的閱讀和寫作活動，提升兒童某些創造性思維的品質。創造力當中的創造性思維部分有敏覺力、流暢力、變通力、獨創力和精進力五個品質。要注意的是，這五個品質同樣重要，並沒有先後之分。此外，一般都不只單培育出某一種思維品質，因為這五個品質並不互相排斥。

2. 選取適當的作品

老師選取一些優秀的兒童文學作品，以便配合學習目標，設計閱讀和寫作的活動。在這個階段，老師不必考慮作品的數量。但是，老師在選取時，有些地方是不可以忽略的。由於寫作創造力資優兒童的腦海存有大量的詞彙，經常閱讀圖書，而且一般較同齡的兒童早熟(附件二)，所以老師可以選取一些內容較深、較豐富的作品，吸引他們閱讀。此外，作品的內容必須充滿想像力，如前所述，童話、寓言和科幻作品是不錯的選擇。然而，老師初期宜選擇一些篇幅較短的作品，以便設計一些較簡單的閱讀和寫作活動，讓學生習慣。學生習慣了活動模式後，老師則要選取篇幅較長的作品，豐富活動的內容。

3. 設計閱讀和寫作活動

老師需要依照學習目的，設計閱讀和寫作活動。老師宜先決定寫作活動，再決定閱讀活動，因為閱讀活動是為了引導學生投入寫作活動的，必須配合寫作活動的內容。老師可以循兩個方向設計或選擇有關活動：(一)老

師可以從所選取的兒童文學作品中，選出其中一兩個，例如較有趣的或內容較豐富多樣的，然後配合作品內容，設計寫作活動；(二)先設計某個寫作活動，再從所選取的兒童文學作品中，找出與該活動相配合的一兩個作品。

閱讀活動是為了開展學生閱讀後所產生的想像力，再把想像力轉化為創造性思維，以便投入寫作活動中。閱讀活動必須與寫作活動相配合。例如，老師選擇了王爾德(Oscar Wilde)的《自私的巨人》(The Selfish Giant)讓學生閱讀，並設計了一個寫作活動，要學生想出三個方法勸服巨人給小孩子們到他的花園裡去玩，並把勸服巨人的過程寫下來。為了配合這個寫作活動，老師可以設計一個「腦力激盪」(brainstorming)的閱讀活動，讓學生盡情發揮想像力。例如每人說出三個辦法，接著互相評論對方的辦法，然後就著同學們給予的意見，修正自己的辦法，跟著便進行寫作。

設計閱讀和寫作活動時，老師要注意活動內容要以學生為中心。「寫作創造力資優兒童」多能主動學習，以學生為中心的學習形式最適合他們。此外，他們習慣了活動模式後，老師便要設計一些難度高的活動，以刺激他們的參與，因為他們能夠迅速地學習，又享受參與較複雜的遊戲(附件二)。

4. 展開閱讀，培養想像力

準備工作安排好後，提升創造力的計劃便開始了。老師先讓兒童閱讀兒童文學作品。如果作品屬於短篇的，老師可以安排學生在課堂上閱讀；較長篇的，則需要在上課前自行閱讀。如前所述，在培養創造力初期，學生較宜閱讀短篇作品。在整個閱讀過程中，老師不要作出任何干預的行為(Haslter, 1991)，例如：學生看到有趣的情節，可能會大笑，老師不宜阻止。閱讀的目的是刺激寫作創造力資優兒童的想像力，想像力受到外界的阻礙，便不容易發揮出來(Duffy, 1998)。此外，寫作創造力資優兒童能夠獨立閱讀(附件二)，老師就更不應該干預他們。閱讀後，老師便要開展有關的活動，讓寫作創造力資優兒童的想像力展露出來，以刺激創造性思維的產生，為寫作活動作準備。筆者在第三階段已陳述了閱讀活動的目的，並以例子說明進行情形，此處不再詳述。

5. 進行寫作，發揮創造力

兒童的想像力得以展露後，便可以投入寫作活動了。老師依照在階段三時決定好的寫作活動內容，引導學生進行寫作。在整個寫作過程中，老師要避免干預學生的創作，例如：批評他們的意念不好；或給予過多的指引，例如：列明每一段要寫些甚麼。創造力和想像力

一樣，要在自由的環境下，才可以盡情發揮。

當然，在寫作活動後，老師還要評鑑學生的作品。但由於評鑑部分不是本文的重點，所以筆者不作詳細的討論。然而，筆者要說明的是，評鑑學生創造力並不容易。老師宜多參考各類有關的書籍，並與其他老師一起商議，制定較客觀的評鑑標準。另外，老師不可以過份著重學生作品中有關語法、修辭等問題，而忽略了創意的問題。評鑑的準則應該與學習的目的相配合，才能令學習的成果顯著。

筆者淺述了通過兒童文學作品的閱讀與寫作，來提高「寫作創造力資優兒童」的創造力的步驟。其實，這些步驟並非一成不變，老師可以因應實際情況來處理，上述提議僅作參考。

實例設計

在本部分，筆者以一個實例設計，較具體地顯示如何通過兒童文學作品的閱讀與寫作，提高創造力資優兒童的創造力。本設計是筆者去年暑假時，帶領三年級學生閱讀兒童文學和寫作時應用過的，這些兒童的特點在本文丙部分首段曾略述。

這個活動透過兒童文學的閱讀和寫作，刺激創造力資優兒童的想像力，從而提升四個創造力思維品質：寫出「井底之蛙跳出井底後可能碰到的五件事」的部分培育兒童的「流暢力」；「井底之蛙跳出井底後可能碰到的五件事」中的類別多少反映兒童的「變通力」；續寫故事需要新的意念，正是「獨創力」的培養；在原來的「井底之蛙」寓言上補上新情節，正是「精進力」的訓練。

結語及建議

本文嘗試探討兒童文學作品如何幫助寫作創造力資優兒童提升創造力，但文中提及的步驟及實例設計只是初步的構思，事實上，要以兒童文學作品提升這類資優兒童的創造力，還要經過更多試驗，從中檢討得失，以便設計更完善的學習活動。

通過兒童文學作品的閱讀與寫作協助寫作創造力資優兒童提升其創造力，並不是一朝一事。而由準備至評鑑，工作是繁重的，需要老師付出莫大的時間和精力。然而，老師的付出卻是值得的，因為他們所作的是一件很有意義的事：發掘並發展資優兒童的特殊潛能，使他們得到良好的學習機會，以免浪費了他們美好的一生。

活動名稱	井底之蛙跳出井底之後	對象	小學三年級的學生 (共十五人)	教節	三教節
活動目的	刺激學生的想像力，從而提升他們的流暢力、變通力、獨創力和精進力。				
所需教材	1. 中國寓言故事<<井底之蛙>> 2. 「井底之蛙跳出井底後可能碰到的五件事」工作紙 3. 「井底之蛙跳出井底之後……」寫作工作紙				
所需工具	紅、綠、藍三種顏色的長形卡紙，數量均等				
教學程序	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-bottom: 10px;"> <p>一. 閱讀活動</p> </div> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 學生閱讀<<井底之蛙>>。 老師分給每個學生紅、綠、藍顏色卡紙，各一張。 老師講述：假設井底之蛙聽了小鳥的勸告，決定跳出井底去看看這個世界。 老師請學生想像井底之蛙跳出井底後，會在甚麼時間，到過甚麼地方，遇到甚麼人/動物/植物/物品，然後把這三個項目分別寫在紅、綠、藍顏色卡紙上。 老師把黑板分成三部分，在每部分的頂部書寫「時間」、「地點」、「人/動物/植物/物品」的字樣，然後收集學生的紙條，依內容加以分門別類，分別張貼在黑板的適當位置上，內容重覆的紙條不張貼。 老師派發「井底之蛙跳出井底後可能碰到的五件事」工作紙，請學生參考黑板上的三項資料，想像井底之蛙跳出井底之後會遇到哪五件事，並寫下來。 <p>註：</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 黑板上的資料主要是協助刺激學生的想像力，例如：學生可能看到黑板上寫著「早上」(時間)、「海邊」(地點)、「鯨魚」(動物)的資料，因而想像到「早上，井底之蛙跳到海邊，驚訝於海是那麼大，剛巧一隻鯨魚游近牠，跟牠做了朋友，並背著牠到海中去，讓牠深切體會海的偉大」的事情。 學生在構想「事情」的過程中，如想出黑板上所沒有的「時間」、「地點」、「人/動物/植物/物品」的資料，老師應容許他們補添到黑板上去。 學生未必能夠想出五件不同的事情，老師不宜勉強，也不必給予過多的提示。 <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-top: 10px;"> <p>二. 寫作活動：</p> </div> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 老師請學生整理「井底之蛙跳出井底後可能碰到的五件事」工作紙上的資料，為寫作活動作好準備。 <p>註：</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 老師可以提議學生嘗試組織這些資料，看看它們當中有沒有可連繫的地方，例如：寫井底之蛙跳出井底之後，先後遇到當中一兩件事，而這些事情又有因果關係；又或者只選出較突出的一件事，作為寫作的內容。 老師只作初步提議即可，不宜給予過多的提示，阻礙學生發展創造力。 <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 老師派發「井底之蛙跳出井底之後……」寫作工作紙，請學生根據整理好的資料，續寫故事。 				

附註

1. 敏覺力(sensitivity)是指「敏於覺察事物，具有發現缺點、需求不尋常及未完成部分的能力」。
- 流暢力(fluency)是指「產生觀念多少，即是思索許多可能的構想和回答，是屬於記憶的過程，因人會將資

料聚集貯存在腦中以供利用」。

變通力(flexibility)是指「不同分類或不同方式的思考，從某思想列車轉換到另一列車的能力，或是以一種不同的新方法去看一個問題。」

獨創力(originality)是指「反應的獨特性，想出別人所想不到來的觀念。」

精進力(elaboration) 是指「一種補充概念，在原來的構想或基本概念再加上新觀念，增加有趣的細節，和組成相關概念群的能力。」

(陳龍安，1998)

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附件一 一般資優兒童的特徵

1. 能夠提早閱讀，並對用詞上的細微差異有很高的領悟能力。
2. 能夠很好地掌握基本技巧功學習的速度較快，並需要較少的練習。重覆的學習令他們感到悶、失去學習動機，以及出現因粗心大意而造成的錯誤。
3. 能夠建立抽象概念，但同齡的小朋友卻還不能夠建立。
4. 比一般的小朋友更能夠深入鑽研某一方面的興趣
5. 能夠領悟非語言的暗示，而同齡的兒童則需要向他們說明所指的是甚麼
6. 在較幼小的年紀便能夠獨立地接受指示，並自然地承擔責任
7. 能夠維持較長的專注力時間
8. 能夠很好地表達自己的思想，並且可以在語言上、數理邏輯上和情感上等與別人清晰地溝通
9. 就著某一個主題或多方面的興趣而作淵博的、快速的和密集式的閱讀
10. 需要消耗好像無限的精力
11. 能夠作出具創造力和原創性的口頭回應
12. 比一般同齡的兒童更能夠處理較複雜的資料
13. 與同輩、父母、師長以及具有高層次思考能力的大人相處融洽
14. 經常進行多個計劃，尤其是家裏的時候，因此，他們經常很忙碌或需要找工作做
15. 經常擔任領袖角色，因為他們有正義感，而年輕使他們充滿領導的力量，而其他同齡的小朋友又支持他

翻譯自 Tuttle, F.B., Becker, L.A. & Sousa, J.A. (1988).

附件二 具備創造力的資優兒童的特徵

1. 好奇心大
2. 擁有大量詞彙
3. 記憶力強
4. 經常獨自閱讀圖書
5. 對時間具有敏感度，把重要日子記錄下來
6. 有毅力
7. 喜歡收集東西
8. 獨立
9. 健康、強壯，但部分較敏感
10. 或會較同齡的兒童高大或強壯
11. 能連續多年維持對某一方面或幾方面的興趣
12. 主動組織自己有興趣的活動
13. 成長過程順利，例如：在學習坐立、行走和說話等方面
14. 能夠迅速地學習
15. 具有幽默感
16. 享受參與較複雜的遊戲
17. 具有創造力和想像力
18. 對世界問題關心和感興趣
19. 經常自我評價
20. 比同齡兒童早熟
21. 具原創力
22. 具有遠大的目標和理想
23. 是領導人才
24. 在繪畫、音樂、寫作、戲劇或舞蹈方面有特殊才能
25. 能運用具科學性的研究方法
26. 能夠理解事物之間的關係，並加以歸納
27. 能創作出新穎的、重要的、獨一無二的作品
28. 產生新的意念、事物和方法
29. 創造和建立新的機械性裝置
30. 經常做出與傳統有所衝突的事
31. 不間斷地對現狀提出質詢
32. 做出意料之外的事情
33. 把學習技能從一個地方應用到別的地方去
34. 能較高層次地、多元化地、有創意地解決問題
35. 表現出與眾不同
36. 享受閱讀，尤其是傳記和人物自傳

翻譯自 Tuttle, F.B., Becker, L.A. & Sousa, J.A.(1988).

附件三 <<你別問這是為甚麼>>

詩歌 (作者:劉倩倩)

媽媽給我兩塊蛋糕，
我悄悄地留下了一個。
你別問，這是為了甚麼？

爸爸給我穿上棉衣，
我一定不把它弄破。
你別問，這是為了甚麼？

哥哥給了我一盒歌片，
我選出了最美麗的一頁。
你別問，這是為了甚麼？

晚上，我把它們放在床頭邊，
讓夢兒趕快飛出我的被窩。
你別問，這是為了甚麼？

我要把蛋糕送給她吃，
把棉衣給她去擋風雪，
在一塊兒唱那最美麗的歌。

你想知道她是誰嗎？
請去問一問安徒生爺爺 -
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引自杜淑貞(1994)。

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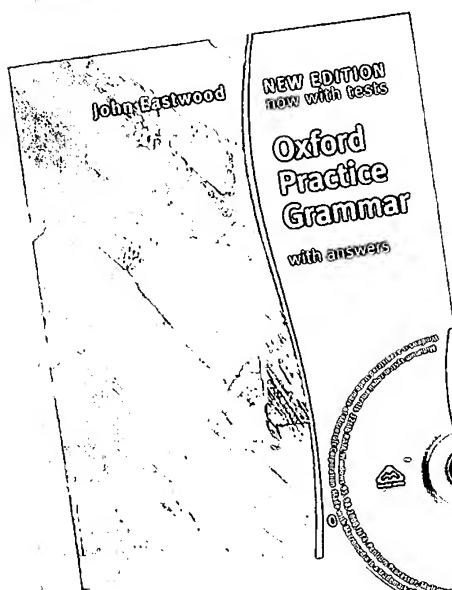
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談香港小學的漢語拼音教學¹

黃月圓 楊素英

香港浸會大學

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上海華東師範大學第一附屬中學

漢語拼音教學是普通話教學中的一項關鍵任務。本文分析、討論了香港小學普通話課程中拼音教學的兩個基本原則問題：一進行漢語拼音教學的前提是小學生必須已經熟悉普通話，具有普通話基本交流能力。如果學生的普通話語音積累不夠，那麼，教學拼音事倍功半，效果差；二香港小學的漢語拼音教學不能完全套用內地小學拼音教學的模式，因為兩地小學生的普通話能力和普通話學習環境很不相同。我們從課文內容，課文形式，課文語言以及課堂教學活動詳細介紹我們的香港小學漢語拼音教材的設計和我們一年來的拼音教學實驗情況。最後，本文描述香港小學生學習漢語拼音的特點。

On the Teaching of Pinyin to Hong Kong Primary School Children

Pinyin is a very important component in Putonghua teaching. This paper reports our research and one-year classroom experiment in teaching Pinyin to Hong Kong primary school children. We summarize two principles in Pinyin teaching: 1) Pinyin teaching in Hong Kong shouldn't follow the curriculum of mainland; 2) Pinyin teaching should start when children have already had the basic Putonghua proficiency. In this paper, we will discuss in detail the designing of Pinyin materials, the classroom activities and the special patterns and characteristics of Hong Kong primary school children in learning Pinyin.

一·引言

漢語拼音是學習普通話的一個重要工具。拼音教學歷來是普通話教學中的一項關鍵教學任務。普通話從一九九八年九月開始列入香港中、小學的核心課程之一。香港的《小學普通話科課程綱要》(1997)把掌握、運用漢語拼音作為四年級至六年級的教學重點²。香港的拼音教學為何四年級開始？能否提早？如何設計符合香港小學生特點的拼音教材？如何設計有效的課堂拼音教學活動？香港小學生學習漢語拼音有甚麼特點和困難？這些問題在香港從未系統研究過。我們在香港政府的語文基金的資助下，剛剛完成一項為期三年的香港小學普通話教學的研究(1998年9月開始，2001年8月結束)，我們在香港東華三院次雲小學對一個班級學生進行了三年的普通話課堂教學(小一至小三)和跟蹤研究。三年中，我們用了一年時間進行拼音教學實驗和研究。本文討論香港小學普通話課程中拼音教學的原則，並詳細介紹我們的拼音教學設計，教學方法和香港小學生學習拼音的特點。

二·漢語拼音以及中國內地小學的漢語拼音教學

漢語拼音

漢字大部分為形聲字，其他還有象形字、會意字等。形聲字由“形”和“聲”兩部分合成。形旁和字的意義有關，聲旁和字的讀音有關。例如：“銅”，形旁“金”表示這是一種金屬，聲旁“同”則表示該字的讀音。聲旁雖屬表音符號，我們卻不能依靠聲旁來給漢字表音，因為有的聲旁只表示近似的音，如“河”的聲旁“可”；有的完全不能表音，如“眨”的聲旁“乏”。在七千多個現代漢字中，能夠依靠聲旁表示現代讀音的只有39%（周有光，1995）。如果要求聲調也能準確表示，能夠表音的漢字就更少。人們嘗試過用各種方法給漢字注音。經過不斷的改進、淘汰，目前使用的主要兩種漢字注音方法是注音字母和漢語拼音。

注音字母在1918年由當時的中國教育部制訂公布。這套注音法用簡化的古漢字作為字母，用37個字母拼寫

北京語音³，例如，貓的注音為ㄇㄠ，燈的注音是ㄉㄥ。這是中國第一套法定的漢語注音字母。台灣至今沿用這套注音字母。這套注音字母的主要特點是採用漢字形式（簡化的古漢字）。缺點是古漢字注音法不適合國際性範圍的使用，既使在當前的漢語社會，絕大多數說漢語的人也都不認識這些簡化的古漢字。

漢語拼音是中華人民共和國成立以後研究制訂的。1958年2月11日第一屆全國人民代表大會第五次會議在北京通過了《漢語拼音方案》。漢語拼音採用拉丁字母注音。《漢語拼音方案》包括：字母表，聲母表，韻母表，聲調符號，隔音符號。它的特點是音素化（按照音素拼寫音節）和拉丁化。因為《漢語拼音方案》採用國際通用的拉丁字母作為注音字母，所以，這套注音法有國際化的優勢。1977年9月，聯合國第三屆地名標準化會議通過決議，採用漢語拼音作為中國地名羅馬字母拼寫法的國際標準。從1979年1月起，中國政府的外交文件採用漢語拼音作為中國人名、地名羅馬字母拼寫法的統一規範。1982年8月，國際標準化組織（ISO）通過決議，採用漢語拼音作為文獻工作中拼寫有關中國詞語的國際標準。此外，許多國家的中文課程也以漢語拼音作為語音工具。新加坡和馬來西亞已正式採用《漢語拼音方案》作為本國的華語拼音方案。

中國幅員廣大，人口眾多，方言比較複雜，同時還有為數眾多的少數民族同胞操用各自的語言，因此在漢語文學習中，十分需要一套識字、正音、學習普通話的輔助工具。漢語拼音在語文教學中正是擔當了這樣的角色。《漢語拼音方案》從公佈至今，在中國內地的小學語文教學中已經應用了四十多年。每年有二千多萬初入學的小學生必須學習漢語拼音，它已經成為小學語文教學中一個不可缺少的重要部分。學校利用漢語拼音幫助小學生識字、正音和學習普通話，同時將漢語拼音作為一種書面符號，在小學生掌握漢字的數量還十分有限的情况下，輔助小學生進行閱讀、作文等訓練。1982年以來在中國許多省、自治區開展了“注音識字，提前讀寫”的實驗，利用漢語拼音的作用，幫助學生早期讀寫，提高語文水平，促進智力發展，這個實驗的效果非常顯著。另外，漢語拼音用來注音識字，在中國的掃除文盲運動中也發揮了很大作用。此外，漢語拼音還被聾啞學生利用來學習手語，中國的少數民族學生和外國留學生也通過漢語拼音學習漢語和漢字。漢語拼音已經成為學習漢語的一種重要工具。在今天的信息社會裏，漢語拼音又成為使用中文電腦的有效工具。

中國內地小學的漢語拼音教學

漢語拼音教學是中國內地小學語文教學的重要一環。內地的拼音教學多年來積累了很多經驗。漢字的讀音主要由三部分組成：聲母，韻母和聲調。拼音教學就是幫助學生熟悉、認識這些聲母、韻母和聲調的符號，幫助他們把這三部分拼讀起來。內地的拼音教學有以下常用的四種拼音方法和三種定調法（見邵敬敏，2001：49—50頁）：

四種拼音方法：普通話音節拼讀的方法

- (1) 兩拼法：把聲母和韻母直接拼合起來，如，p+a→pà（怕）。
- (2) 三拼法：把音節分成聲母、韻頭、韻身三部分進行連讀，也叫“三拼連讀法”，如，p+i+ao→piào（票）。
- (3) 聲介合拼法：把聲母和介音（韻頭）先拼讀成一個音節，再把這個音節與後面的韻身相拼，如，p+i→pi+ao→piào（票）。
- (4) 整體認讀法：這種方法又叫音節直呼法，不用聲母去拼韻母，而是直接讀出音節，這種方法要以熟悉400多個基本音節為基礎。

三種定調方法：音節中聲調的拼讀方法

- (1) 數調法：這個拼讀法分三步，先把聲母和韻母（韻母讀陰平調）相拼，再將拼出的音節按陰平、陽平、上聲、去聲四個聲調的順序讀出來，讀到要讀的聲調為止。如：拼讀“大”字，第一步拼讀d-ā→dā，第二步加聲調dā，dá，dǎ，dà，第三步讀出dà。
- (2) 音節定調法：這個拼讀法有兩步，先把聲母和韻母（韻母讀陰平調）相拼，再讀出要讀的聲調。如：拼讀“大”字，第一步拼讀d-ā→dā，第二步直接加去聲調，讀出dà。此方法比上面的數調法少一步，省略了將拼出的音節按四個聲調順序讀出來的一步。
- (3) 韻母定調法：這個拼讀法一步完成，直接把聲母和帶聲調的韻母相拼，韻母不再讀陰平調，而是讀詞的本身聲調。如：拼讀“大”字，d-à→dà。

我們的拼音教學實驗主要採用兩拼法，對帶有介音的音節，採用三拼法。因為兩拼法是主要的拼音方法，必須掌握。三拼法只適用於有介音的音節，但是在拼音教學上有應用價值，把介音離析出ian、uang、üan等

帶介音的複韻母，可以少學這些複韻母，減輕學習的負擔（邵敬敏，2001）。在定聲調方面，我們主要採用韻母定調教學法。內地小學近年大多採用這種韻母定調法，這種方法把韻母和聲調作為一個連體，能夠較有效地訓練學生熟練運用整體音節的能力。

漢語拼音教學在內地屬於小學一年級中國語文課的必學內容。我們下面以上海小學的拼音教學為例來討論內地小學的拼音教學安排。上海的語言情況與香港既有相似之處，又有不同之處。了解上海小學的拼音教學有助於香港小學的拼音教學設計。上海和香港的相似之處是：上海是吳方言區，吳語與普通話在語音方面有如粵語和普通話在語音方面的差別，都是相互不可理解（mutually unintelligible）。上海孩子的家庭語言不是普通話，吳語是他們的母語和家庭用語；香港孩子的情況相似，粵語是他們的母語和家庭用語（有關香港孩子母語和習得普通話的定位問題，見黃月圓、楊素英，2001）。兩地不同之處是：上海的孩子有良好的普通話語言環境。雖然普通話不是他們的家庭用語，但是上海幼稚園的教學語言，基本上是普通話，上海孩子還從電視等各種媒體大量接觸到普通話，他們在入小學時，已經具備基本的聽說普通話的能力。這一點與香港小學一年級學生從零起點學習普通話的情況完全不同。

上海小一學生入學後，頭兩個月的中國語文課不學其他內容，而是集中、強化學習漢語拼音，每周八至十節拼音課（每課40分鐘）。上海小學語文教材中的拼音教學分十七課：單韻母兩課，複韻母六課，聲母九課。每課的內容簡明扼要，每篇課文的篇幅僅半張A4紙。每個拼音旁邊有相應的圖，如，單韻母 /i/ 旁邊是一件衣服，聲母 /g/ 旁邊是一隻鴿子，複韻母 /ie/ 旁邊是一片葉子，分別表明拼音符號 /i/ 的讀音是“衣”，/g/ 的讀音是“鴿”，/ie/ 的讀音是“葉”。上海學生都熟悉這些物品的普通話發音，這些圖片可以幫助孩子辨認和記憶抽象的漢語拼音字母，例如，孩子忘記了 /i/ 所代表的音，但是，他一見旁邊的衣服插圖，就會想起 /i/ 的讀音。我們專程去上海走訪了虹口區教育學院負責小學語文教學的一位老師，了解他們區內小一學生學習拼音的情況。我們得知上海小一拼音教學的成功率很高，絕大部分學生完全可以在兩個月內掌握漢語拼音。孩子學習了漢語拼音之後朗讀文章，即使遇到不認識的字，只要標上了拼音，他們就可以準確地讀出這個字音。我們曾經做過一個小小的實驗，把我們為香港小學二年級編寫的普通話教材（課文標有漢語拼音）給上海的一位小一學生讀。香港的課本是繁體字，而上海小學生只學簡體字，很多字那個學生不認識，可是這個小一學生用普

通話十分流暢地讀出了課文。我們驚異地問她怎麼會讀出不認識的字，她說：“我不看字，只看拼音。”

上海小一的拼音教學這麼有效，香港小學的拼音教學能否套用上海的模式呢？香港小學生能否也在小一學習拼音呢？香港小學生是否也能這麼成功地在短時間內掌握漢語拼音呢？下面我們詳細介紹我們的拼音教學實驗和研究。

三. 我們對香港小學拼音教學的設計和教學實驗

我們從1998年9月起在香港東華三院洗次雲小學進行一項為期三年的小一至小三學生普通話能力發展的縱向研究。研究分兩個部分：一 根據語言習得和教學理論，編寫出一套符合孩子語言和心理發展的普通話課教材，設計出一套有效的教學方法，用這套教材和方法在1998年入學的一個一年級班跟班實驗教學三年；二 系統地調查和分析這個實驗班學生三年中的普通話能力的發展。我們根據第二語言習得的理論和香港小學生的實際情況確定了小一至小三的普通話教學重點：小一階段幫助孩子熟悉普通話的語音、語調，讓他們對普通話的語音整體面貌建立起感性的認識；小二階段加強孩子普通話發音的準確性，訓練他們用普通話敘述簡單的事情；小三階段訓練孩子用普通話講述較複雜的事情，並且進行漢語拼音教學（詳情見黃月圓、楊素英、李蒸，2000a）。

談論香港小學拼音教學，首先要討論的問題是何時開始教漢語拼音最合適。我們的普通話實驗教學為何把拼音教學定在三年級呢？內地的小學從一年級開始教拼音，香港的小學能不能也從一年級開始教？我們認為不行。原因是香港小一學生學習普通話是從零起點開始，他們沒有普通話的語音基礎，無法把抽象的拼音符號與普通話的語音結合起來。上海的小一學生雖然在家操用上海話，但是他們對普通話的語音並不陌生。中國內地普及普通話已有四十多年了，上海的中年人和年青人都能操說流利的普通話，家長給孩子讀故事書、教孩子背唐詩、認簡單的漢字時，都用普通話，除此之外，孩子還通過電影、電視、廣播大量接觸普通話。他們有聽和說普通話的語音基礎，在入小學時已經具有最基本的用普通話與人交流的能力。他們見到衣服的插圖，就會用普通話讀出 /yi fu/，就馬上知道拼音符號 /i/ 的讀音。但是，對香港小一的極大多數孩子來說，普通話是一門完全陌生的語言。沒有普通話基礎的香港孩子見到衣服

的插圖，只會用粵語稱之為 /sam/ “衫”，不可能把衣服與拼音符號 /i/ 的讀音聯繫起來。

在我們的研究中，我們曾經嘗試在二年級上學期給實驗班的學生教漢語拼音，我們當時是這樣考慮的，如果上海孩子能在小一用兩個月時間就掌握拼音，那麼，我們的實驗班孩子經過了一年級一年的普通話課學習，已經能背二十幾首普通話兒歌，能夠說一些簡單的普通話句子，已經具有最基本的普通話語音基礎（有關香港小一學生普通話能力的發展見黃月圓、楊素英，2000），應該可以接受拼音教學了。我們試教了一個月的拼音，效果不好。問題體現在兩個方面：一是學生對拼音符號與其讀音的這一對應關係似乎很難理解。當我們把拼音符號寫在黑板上，要他們讀時，他們往往不知所從，會亂讀一通，而且顯得很不耐煩，沒有興趣，提不起精神；二是粵語干擾非常嚴重。學生即使跟著老師讀出了普通話的拼音，卻把拼讀的拼音與相似音的粵語詞聯繫起來，例如，我們教拼音 p-à（怕），學生卻拼出“pà，拍（pà）皮球的拍”（拍在普通話中的讀音是 pāi），把拼音 pà 與粵語詞“拍”聯繫在一起。我們教拼音 m-ǎ（馬），學生卻拼出“mǎ，買（mǎ）東西的買”（買在普通話中的讀音是 mǎi），把拼音 mǎ 與粵語詞“買”聯繫在一起。我們教拼音 l-ù（路），學生卻拼出“lù，綠（lù）色的綠（綠在普通話中的讀音是 lǜ）”，把拼音 lù 與粵語詞“綠”聯繫在一起。當我們給孩子解釋拼音應該與普通話字音聯繫起來的時候，學生覺得很難理解，很難接受拼音 /mǎ/（馬）為何不能是粵語的“買”。這一個月的拼音實驗教學，我們教得吃力，孩子也學得很吃力。這些例子清楚地說明香港小學生僅僅具有最基本的普通話語音基礎，還不夠學習拼音。他們如果沒有足夠的普通話詞彙，沒有扎實的普通話語音基礎，學習拼音時會受到粵語語音的嚴重干擾，與粵語詞語混淆不清，他們很難把抽象的拼音符號和陌生的普通話語音聯繫起來。在這種情況下教學拼音，事倍功半，成效差⁴。

因為學生學得很吃力，沒有興趣，我們二年級的拼音教學試驗了一個月後，就停止了，把教學重點放到孩子喜歡的普通話兒歌和故事上，來繼續訓練和提高學生的普通話基本能力。總結我們二年級不成功的拼音教學，我們得出的結論是：我們實驗班的學生僅僅經過一年級普通話課訓練，他們普通話語音能力的積累還不足以學習拼音。上海小一學生能成功地在兩個月內學好拼音，他們不僅僅在入學時已經具有聽和說普通話的能力，他們小一的拼音教學是集中、強化式的訓練，兩個月學拼音，上課時間達45小時（每周8節課，每節課40分鐘）。而我們實驗班的學生，普通話為零起點，在一

年級的整個學年中，總共才上33小時的普通話課（每周2節普通話課，每節課35分鐘，加上各種活動和假期的影響，實驗班一年級一學年共上普通話課57節，約33小時）。上海小一孩子在兩個月中學習拼音的時間比我們香港小一孩子一學年的普通話課時間還多。兩地小學生的普通話能力和普通話學習環境很不相同，所以，在學習拼音方面，我們不能完全拿內地小學生的經驗來要求香港小學生，在普通話課時不足和小一學生沒有普通話基礎的情況下，不宜在小一集中學拼音，在這種情況下，我們不可能在兩個月內完成拼音教學。要回答香港小學生何時開始學漢語拼音最合適這個問題，從我們的拼音教學實驗的結果來看，我們認為，進行漢語拼音教學的前提是學生必須熟悉普通話，具有普通話基本交流能力，而不是根據學生的年級來定。即使是四年級的學生（《小學普通話科課程綱要》要求四年級開始學用拼音），如果他們不具備一定的普通話基本交流能力，沒有足夠的普通話詞彙，他們也不可能有效地學會拼音。

我們在三年級再次給我們的實驗班試驗教拼音，理由是，這個班的學生經過兩年的普通話課學習，已熟悉普通話的語音和語調，已具有普通話基本交流能力，已掌握一定的普通話詞彙。我們三年級的拼音教學實驗結果理想，反映出學生具有普通話基本交流能力是拼音教學的基礎。下面詳細介紹我們關於漢語拼音教材的設計和課堂教學實驗的情況。

香港小學拼音教材的設計

我們的拼音教學目標是：能認讀聲母、韻母，根據聲調拼讀音節，能利用漢語拼音正音。為了有效地教學拼音，我們根據香港小學生學習普通話的特點設計了一套拼音教材。從教學的內容和拼音教學的順序（先單韻母，再聲母，最後複韻母）來看，我們教學安排與內地小學的拼音教學一致，都遵循了由易到難，由簡單到複雜的教學安排。不同之處在，香港小學一般每周僅有一至二節普通話課，我們的拼音教學安排為一學年（兩個學期）的教程。我們是這樣安排的：第一學期12課，完成6個單韻母/a, o, e, i, u, ü/和21個聲母/b, p, m, f, d, t, n, l, g, k, h, j, q, x, zh, ch, sh, r, z, c, s/的教學，第二學期12課，完成18個複韻母/ai, ei, ui, ao, ou, iu, ie, ue, er, an, en, in, un, ün, ang, eng, ing, ong/的教學⁵。另外，我們給每課教學的重點拼音都設計了有趣的兒歌或故事或繞口令的練習，不僅能用來提高練習重點音的反復率，為拼音教學服務，來避免常見的拼音教學的枯燥性和單調性，同樣可以作為訓練學生用普通話交流的一般教學材料和課外普通話活動的材

料。我們的拼音教學與訓練學生的普通話交流能力結合在一起。

教材內容的設計是香港小學拼音教學的關鍵。課本乃是一課之本。拼音本身是抽象的符號，小學生對抽象的符號不感興趣，理解能力差。如果我們不能給孩子提供有趣的拼音教材，不僅會扼殺孩子學拼音的興趣，更會扼殺孩子學習普通話的興趣。我們編寫拼音教材時，從孩子的心理特點和語言發展規律出發，遵循四條原則：內容上趣味性強，形式上活潑輕鬆，語言上生動、上口，練習上操練自然、有趣、反復性強。

內容上趣味性強

我們從孩子的角度來看世界，就不難找出孩子感興趣的內容。孩子對他們生活中直接有關的東西（家庭、學校等）感興趣，孩子都喜歡動物，孩子最喜歡聽故事。我們設計的課文採用孩子熟悉的生活詞語來描寫他們喜歡的東西。以我們拼音教材的第一課《a o e》為例。這課的課文是這樣的：

張大嘴巴 a a a , ā á ǎ à , 阿姨阿姨請喝茶。

圓圓嘴巴 o o o , ō ó ǒ ò , 公雞叫，喔喔喔。

扁扁嘴巴 e e e , è é ě ě , 河裏有隻大白鵝。

配合教學重點，我們設計了一首兒歌《鴨媽媽》作為這課的練習：

小河水，嘩啦啦，河邊來了鴨媽媽。

鴨媽媽，帶娃娃，帶著一群小黃鴨。

小黃鴨，嘎嘎叫：“媽媽，媽媽，我餓了！”

鴨媽媽，跳下河，小鴨說：“我害怕。”

“好娃娃，不要怕，河裏有魚又有蝦。”

小黃鴨，跳下河，捉了魚，又捉蝦。

吃飽肚子笑哈哈：“嘎嘎嘎！嘎嘎嘎！”

內容上，這一課的課文和練習童趣盎然，具有遊戲性；語言上，押韻、上口，而且活潑、生動，充滿了孩子熟悉和常用的生活詞語，如，媽媽、阿姨、娃娃、嘴巴、肚子、魚、蝦、大白鵝、鴨、叫、跳、餓、來、喝茶、吃飽、笑哈哈等。這課的拼音教學重點/a, o, e/ 通過這些不同詞語反復出現在有趣的課文和練習中。

又如，教單韻母 /i/ 時，我們設計了這麼一首兒歌：

衣，衣，衣，媽媽給我做新衣；

姨，姨，姨，我有一個好阿姨；

蟻，蟻，蟻，地上一群小螞蟻；

意，意，意，學好拼音有意義。

“新衣”、“阿姨”、“螞蟻”，都是學生生活中熟悉的內容，我們還巧妙地通過“衣”、“姨”、“蟻”、

“義”四個字來加強 /i/ 的四個聲調的訓練。《b p m f》一課中，我們編寫了分辨聲母 /b/ 和 /p/ 的兒歌《吹泡泡》：不輕不重慢慢吹，吹得泡泡滿天飄。為了幫助學生分辨 /d/ 和 /t/，我們設計了《跳繩》：冬天到，天氣冷，同學們，來跳繩。《y w》一課中有這樣兩句：Y Y Y，像樹叉，W W W，像筆架。我們的拼音教材設法把抽象的漢語拼音字母和孩子熟悉的生活和活動結合起來。孩子一旦有了學習興趣，學習速度就快，學習效果就好。

形式上活潑輕鬆

我們的拼音課文和練習在形式上力求活潑輕鬆，符合孩子的特點。我們的課文主要採用了口訣的形式，如第二課《i u ü》的課文是這樣一首口訣：

牙齒對齊 i i i , i i i , 媽媽給我做新衣。

嘴巴尖尖 u u u , ū ú ŭ ù , 火車火車鳴鳴鳴。

嘴巴翹起 ü ü ü , ü ü ü , 我和爸爸去釣魚。

我們以口訣的形式告訴學生發這三個單韻母時的口形。這些口訣簡明扼要、形象、語句活潑、有韻律，孩子非常願意讀，喜歡模仿，很快就會背誦課文。我們每課後面的練習主要採用兒歌形式和故事形式。兒歌是一種獨特的、兒童喜聞樂見的語言形式，語句簡短、生動、押韻、易讀、易誦、易唱（見上面提到的兒歌《鴨媽媽》）。除此之外，我們還適當地選用了一些繞口令（如，第5課的 /k/ 和 /h/ 的練習，“哥哥口渴要喝水，弟弟喝水口不渴”），看圖說話（第11課的“小熊和蜜蜂”）等孩子喜歡的說話形式。孩子對這樣的課文和練習，感到親切和輕鬆，不會覺得學拼音枯燥。

語言上生動、上口

有趣的內容和活潑的課文形式需要通過生動的語言體現出來才能受到孩子的歡迎。漢語中有大量的擬聲詞、雙聲詞、疊韻詞，這些詞通常以重疊形式出現，讀起來特別生動、活潑，孩子尤其喜歡。我們的拼音教材選用了很多這樣生動上口的詞語配合每課的重點拼音，如：《d t n l》課中的“馬蹄得得得”，《g k h》中的“小黑豬，胖乎乎，躺在樹下打呼嚕”，《j q x》中的“小雞小雞噠噠噠”。孩子特別愛讀這樣的詞句，讀起來聲音特別大，還帶有表情，如果讀得不準確，我們糾正他們，他們非常樂意改正，一遍一遍，毫不厭煩。這些重疊詞語不僅是為了提高課文的生動性，因為重疊詞語重復率高，我們可以利用高重復率的特點來反復訓練孩子對課文中的重點拼音和難點音的發音。

練習上操練自然、有趣、反復性強

孩子學習拼音需要反復練習、鞏固。對於抽象的漢語拼音字母，孩子常常是學了，又忘了。為了鞏固所學的拼音，需要設計重複率高的練習，練習必須緊密配合課文。我們的拼音教材力求所教的拼音以各種方式，在有趣的課文和練習的兒歌中自然多次出現，使孩子得到最大限度的練習。例如，聲母 /j, q, x/ 對粵方言區的人來說是難點音，香港人容易將這三個舌面音發得類似舌尖前音 /z, c, s/ 和單韻母 /i/ 相拼的音。要克服這幾個難點音，需要大量練習。我們為〈j q x〉一課的練習設計了兒歌《小猴子炒瓜》：

小猴子，買南瓜，歡歡喜喜抬回家。
洗一洗，切一切，放到鍋裏炒幾下。
油要多，火要大，加點鹽，加點辣。
嘗嘗，味道不錯，最好吃的是炒瓜。
小猴子，買西瓜，歡歡喜喜抬回家。
洗一洗，切一切，放到鍋裏炒幾下。
油要多，火要大，加點鹽，加點辣。
哎呀，不好吃，為啥味道這樣差？

這首兒歌中帶有 /j, q, x/ 聲母的詞有：家、幾、加、切、小、喜、洗、下、西。孩子讀一遍兒歌就操練了 8 次 /j/，4 次 /q/，13 次 /x/。這首兒歌的動作性特別強，兒歌中的猴子買瓜、抬瓜、洗瓜、切瓜、炒瓜、嚐瓜的動作具體生動，孩子讀時可以自然地配上一系列的動作，孩子非常愛讀。我們把這些難點音巧妙地用漢語特有的重疊詞形式編入孩子感興趣的兒歌中，讓孩子在愉快的讀誦兒歌過程中達到了反復練習的目的。

對於香港學生學習拼音的難點音，一方面需要在課文和練習中反復進行操練，幫助他們掌握，另一方面還需要隔一段時間再以其他方式出現，讓學生溫故而知新，鞏固正確的發音。如：聲母 /h/ 是一個難點音，粵方言區的人常把 /h/ 發成 /k/。/h/ 是我們第五課的學習重點，在這一課中，我們設計了兒歌《小黑豬》，通過兒歌中“黑 (hei)”、“黃 (huang)”、“呼 (hu)”等詞，讓學生每讀一遍兒歌就練習了 12 次 /h/ 的發音。在第十一課，我們又編寫了故事《動物喝水》，故事中 /h/ 音出現了 6 次，讓學生在聽故事、講故事的過程中再次復習和操練 /h/ 的發音，不斷地提醒他們這些音的拼音符號。不同的形式，不同的內容，學生有新鮮感，願意練習。

課堂教學

我們知道拼音教學的重點是教師的規範領讀，學生拼讀和辨認拼音符號。但是給小學生教拼音最忌枯燥、沉悶、一味地領讀和拼讀的課堂教學方式。拼音教學應該營造輕鬆愉快的、孩子積極參與的課堂氣氛，因為孩子的積極性和興趣是學好拼音的關鍵。現在來談談我們在拼音實驗教學中是如何設計和組織有趣的課堂教學活動的。小學生愛動，愛遊戲，愛參與，根據孩子的這些特點，我們的拼音教學特別重視和強調課堂教學的活動性、挑戰性和現實性。

活動性

我們編寫的拼音教材趣味性強，可以在課堂上組織很多孩子喜歡的活動。如，〈ai ei〉一課練習中有一首《拍手歌》，是配合學習複韻母 /ai/ 而設計的。上這一課時，我們把學生分成兩人一組做拍手遊戲，一邊說“你拍一，我拍一，一個小孩坐飛機。你拍二，我拍二……”，一邊拍手做各種動作。我們把帶有 /ai/ 音的“拍”，“孩”字的拼音寫在黑板上提醒孩子。一遍遊戲下來，每人發了 32 次韻母為 /ai/ 的字音。這樣的遊戲，課後也深受孩子喜愛，孩子下了課還常常三三兩兩一起做這遊戲。我們實驗班的學生還在全校的一次普通話早會上，上台示範帶領全校的同學做《拍手歌》遊戲。這樣，孩子在遊戲中輕鬆地掌握了 /ai/ 音，認識了 /ai/ 的拼音符號。

課文《好習慣》是為復習拼音 /j, q, x/ 設計的，課文中的許多詞是以 /j, q, x/ 為聲母的，如，腳、精、叫、輕悄悄、青、習、學、小、蟹、行、胸、蝦。學這課時，我們把一些關鍵詞的拼音寫在黑板上，重點進行拼讀練習，然後請學生上台扮演課文中的角色：小貓、螃蟹、白鵝、青蝦、黃鶯、烏鴉。要求學生一邊自我介紹：“我是小貓，我走路輕悄悄”，“我是小螃蟹，橫行又霸道”，一邊學貓的輕巧貓步，學螃蟹的橫行，學大蝦的彎背，學白鵝的挺胸，學黃鶯和烏鴉的不同歌聲。上台的孩子高興地用誇張動作學了每一個動物，台下原來坐姿不端正的學生聽到“坐著學白鵝，挺胸精神好”一句時，會情不自禁地挺起小胸脯。孩子搶著上台表演，課堂氣氛相當活躍。孩子表演時，我們的老師注意他們的發音，他們說錯了，就用拼音來糾正他們。孩子在開開心心的表演過程中，練習並認辨了難點音 /j, q, x/。

挑戰性

三年級的小學生喜歡具有挑戰性的活動，喜歡發表自己的意見。我們根據課文和練習的內容對每課都設計了一至兩個有一定難度、需要孩子思考、需要他們發揮想像力的問題，來啟發學生思維的積極性，給他們提供發表自己看法的機會，鼓勵他們用普通話交流。例如，我們的《ao ou》一課是重點訓練孩子辨認粵方言地區人容易混淆的複韻母 /ao/ 和 /ou/，我們為這一課編寫了故事《猴子摘桃子》，通過猴子(/hou/)和桃子(/tao/)兩詞在故事裏反復出現來辨別 /ao/ 和 /ou/ 兩個難音。故事中的猴子去摘桃子送給奶奶，它挑選桃子的方法是摘一個咬一口，甜的留下，不甜的扔掉。在我們的實驗教學中，我們請學生說說小猴子的辦法好不好，如果不好，就幫小猴想一個辦法。孩子都不滿意小猴的做法，紛紛說：“這是一隻笨猴子。”“桃子咬過了，不可以再送給奶奶了。”還踴躍說出他們的好辦法：“先在一棵桃樹上摘一個桃子吃，如果是甜的，這棵樹上的桃子都是甜的。”“看桃子的顏色，是紅的，桃子就是甜的。”“聞一聞桃子，是香的，就是甜的。”學生在動腦筋發表意見的過程中，反復提到猴子(/hou/)和桃子(/tao/)，不知不覺地反復練習了 /ao/ 和 /ou/。孩子說錯了，我們立即糾正他們，把拼音 /hou/ 和 /tao/ 大大地寫在黑板上，領他們拼讀，這時的孩子是十分樂意改正的，因為他們非常希望自己發表的見解得到老師和同學的肯定和支持，所以力求說得準確，說得好。

我們為《zh ch sh r》一課設計了一首兒歌《蜘蛛織網》。讀了這首兒歌以後，我們向孩子提了很多問題：你們見過蜘蛛網嗎？在甚麼地方看見的？有沒有見過蜘蛛織網？怎麼樣織的？有沒有見過被蜘蛛網粘住的小蟲？課堂上頓時熱鬧起來，大家搶著回答：“在公園裏一棵樹上看到蜘蛛網。”“在床下面有蜘蛛網。”“蜘蛛織網的時候爬來爬去。”“我看到一隻蚊在蜘蛛網上（“蚊”沒有學過，孩子用粵語說這個字），蜘蛛吃牠。”討論到蜘蛛網粘小蟲時，有一位男孩子站起來問了老師一個很有挑戰性的問題：“為甚麼蜘蛛自己在網上爬來爬去，不會被網粘住呢？”我們先請其他孩子回答這個問題，有一個孩子說：“因為蜘蛛身上有油，不會粘住。”等孩子們說完看法後，我們再給他們講解蜘蛛自己粘不上的科學道理。在整個練習中，我們把他們回答中提到的帶 /zhi, chi, shi/ 音的“蜘蛛”、“織”、“床”、“吃”、“樹上”等詞的拼音寫在黑板上，最後領全班學生把這些詞拼讀了一遍，進一步練習了這一課教的聲母。

現實性

漢語拼音對於初學的小學學生來說，確實很抽象，但是如果讓他們在學習的過程中能及時運用所學的拼音知識，那就變得有趣了。我們的拼音教學設計了一些具有現實性的活動。我們把每課重點教的聲韻母與本班學生的姓名聯繫起來，如，把拼音 /l, s, zh / 與實驗班學生的姓，呂(lǚ)，林(lín)，蘇(sū)，鄭(zhèng)，張(zhāng)分別聯繫起來。學到 /h/，讓學生找出班上帶 /h/ 音的學生姓名。香港孩子區分前後鼻韻母 /en, eng, in, ing/ 有一定的困難，我們在教這些韻母時也採用了這個方法。我們把詠恩同學的恩(en)與浩峰同學的峰(fēng)，聲音的音(in)與英傑同學的英(yīng)作為區分比較的例詞。以班上學生的姓名作為拼讀的例字，不僅令學生感興趣，更重要的是給抽象的拼音增加了現實性和使用性。

課堂上我們鼓勵孩子用學過的拼音作為工具來正音或讀新詞。有一次班上來了聽課的外班老師，學生問這位老師姓甚麼，我們在黑板上寫下拼音 /wú/，學生立即齊聲說道：“吳老師好！”又有一次，美勞課教了變魔術的道具製作，一位學生在普通話課上興奮地對我們說：“我會變魔術。”但是，他說錯了聲調，把魔術 /mó shù/ 說成 /mō shù/，我們立刻在黑板上寫下拼音：mó shù，讓學生讀拼音自己糾正。去年期末口試時，一位學生把詞組“身體健康”的“身”讀成 /xīn/，“健”讀成 /zian/，我們在她說錯的兩個字旁邊用拼音寫上正確的拼音 /shēn/ 和 /jiàn/，請她自己糾正，這個學生立刻把錯音改過來了。我們給實驗班的每個學生配備了一本內地出版的、用漢語拼音注音的《中華字典》，鼓勵他們做練習時，遇上不會寫的字，根據拼音去查字典。雖然《中華字典》是簡寫體本，但是凡有繁、簡兩體的字，字典都列出其繁體字形，不影響孩子寫、用繁體字。很多學生對查字典很感興趣。通過查字典的方式，學生既運用了學到的拼音知識，也促進了他們的中文學習。

四．香港孩子學漢語拼音的特點

我們在實驗班進行拼音教學的目標是讓學生能看著拼音符號讀出正確的音節，為普通話正音。拼音學習包括三個部分：一認辨漢語拼音採用的拉丁字母，二認讀拼音字母，也就是對應拼音字母與其發音，三掌握拼音的正確發音。我們從這三方面來談香港孩子學習漢語拼音的特點。

認辨漢語拼音字母

首先討論香港小學生認辨拼音字母的情況。香港小學生從一年級開始學英語，到了三年級學拼音時，他們已經非常熟悉26個拉丁字母，所以他們不需要學認拼音的字母，這是香港學生學拼音的一點優勢。但是內地的小一學生因為還沒有學習英語，初學拼音時需要花一定的時間學認字母和練習書寫字母，他們常常會犯一些這樣的錯誤，如，將a的“尾巴”寫到左邊，把e的開口寫到左邊，所以，內地拼音教學有專門的關於字母寫法的口訣，如，“右下圓圈b b b，左下圓圈d d d，一扇小門n n n，兩扇小門m m m”。這是兩地孩子學拼音的不同點之一。但是香港孩子需要學習辨認普通話的四個聲調符號：ˊ ˋ ˊ ˋ，這些符號分別表示一聲、二聲、三聲、四聲，不標符號的為輕聲。聲調符號的數量少，而且符號之間區別大，也形象，在我們的實驗中，孩子很快就能清楚地辨認這些聲調的符號。也就是說，香港小學生沒有認辨拼音符號的問題。

認讀拼音字母

認讀拼音字母是香港小學生初學拼音時的難點，初學階段學生常常不能把拼音字母與其發音對應起來。六個單韻母(/a, o, e, i, u, ü/)中，學生能夠很快地把韻母/a, o, u與其發音對應起來，掌握得較準，但是他們容易把拼音中的韻母/i, e/和英文字母i、e混淆，常常把拼音/i/念成英文字母i (/ai/)的音，把拼音/e/念成英文字母e (/i:/)的音。這種混淆在拼音學習的中期階段開始消失。在我們的實驗中，我們發現除了字母i、e以外，其他英文字母對漢語拼音學習的干擾不大。/ü/是香港學生對應拼音字母與其發音的一個難點。問題不在於/ü/的本身，學生很容易掌握/ü/的認讀。問題在於漢語拼音方案對/ü/有不同的拼寫規則，/ü/僅在聲母/n/或/l/後以其全貌出現，例如，lǜ, nǚ，在其他聲母後，拼音規則規定書寫時去掉ü上面的兩點，寫成u，如，qu(去)，yu(魚)。我們的學生看到拼音ju、qu、xu、yu等音節時，以為其中的韻母是/u/，而不知道這是省略了兩點的/ü/，所以按照/u/音來讀這些音節中的韻母。教單韻母/u/時，我們給學生解釋：因為普通話中沒有/j/、/q/、/x/和/u/相拼的音節，我們所見到的ju、qu、xu音節中的u實際上是/ü/。我們還特地教了一首口訣：“j q x 真調皮，看見魚(ü)眼就挖去。”但是，小學生仍然很難理解這種/ü/的特殊拼寫規則，他們對/ü/、/u/的混淆需要經歷相當長的一段時間，要到拼音學習的後階段才有好轉。我們曾經給成人(外國留學

生和香港的小學教師)教過漢語拼音，他們對於拼寫規律較能理解和記憶，盡管一開始也容易將省略了兩點的韻母/ü/誤認為是/u/，但是，一拼讀就知道不對了，因為漢語中沒有/j/、/q/、/x/和/u/相拼的音節，拼讀不出來，所以馬上意識到，與/j/、/q/、/x/相拼的u是/ü/的省略形式，也就是說成人理解、概括能力強，較容易掌握這項拼寫規則。但是小學生的抽象概括能力弱，加上接觸普通話的時間又太少，所以需要較長的時間來掌握/ü/的特殊拼寫規則。

現在我們來看學生認讀聲母的情況。漢語聲母共21個，拼音教學一般把聲母分成六組來教：/b, p, m, f/、/d, t, n, l/、/g, k, h/、/j, q, x/、/z, c, s/、/zh, ch, sh, r/。內地拼音教學是這樣安排的，我們也是這樣分組的。在我們的實驗教學中，香港小學生認讀/b, p, m, f/、/d, t, n, l/和/g, k, h, r/三組聲母很快，很容易，但是認讀/j, q, x/、/z, c, s/、/zh, ch, sh/這三組聲母需要較長一點時間。有趣的是他們對這三組聲母的認讀有整體記憶的特點，例如，他們將/j, q, x/作為一個整體。當我們抽一張聲母卡片/q/讓學生讀時，很多孩子會先一口氣讀出三個聲母/j, q, x/，確定了/q/後，再讀出/j/。讓他們讀聲母/c/，他們往往會先說/z, c, s/，然後再單獨說出/c/。有一次，在課堂練習中，學生將/shu/（書）錯讀成/chu/，老師指著聲母/sh/提示：“想一想，這個音怎麼讀？”這時，孩子大聲地說出：“zh、ch、sh”，然後再說：“sh”，再繼續說：“sh-u -> shu。”這種聲母整體記憶的現象在學拼音的第一個學期較多，到第二學期，有減少。我們認為這是孩子的一種學習策略。以上的三組聲母是說粵語的人學普通話時的難點音，/z, c, s/和/zh, ch, sh/在形式上相似，發音也相近，/j, q, x/也是一組發音相近的聲母，把這些難音分組來整體記憶，經濟、省力。這種整體記憶現象在我們的學生一年級初上普通話課時也出現過，例如，一上我們教了孩子一首兒歌《小書包》，學生都會背誦這首兒歌，在課堂上學過“書包”一詞，但是，當我們把“書包”這個詞寫在黑板上讓他們認讀時，他們讀不出來，而是從頭到尾背誦這首兒歌，背到“書包”一詞才停住，大聲讀出“書包”。很明顯，他們是把一首兒歌作為一個整體來記憶。這種兒歌整體記憶現象到一年級的下學期才減少（有關香港小一學生普通話能力的發展，見黃月圓、楊素英、李蒸 2000b）。從以上情況我們可以看出，整體記憶是香港小學生初學普通話或初學漢語拼音階段的一種學習策略。

香港小學生認讀複韻母的困難較大。18個複韻母中，學生認讀最快的是/a/打頭的一組複韻母/ai, ao, an,

ang/。他們認讀前鼻韻母 /en/、/in/ 與後鼻韻母 /eng/、/ing/ 也比較容易。認讀困難最大的、常常混淆的是這四組複韻母：/ei, ie, üe/、/un, ün/、/ui, iu/ 和 /ou, uo/。從拼音符號來看，這四組內的複韻母之間有非常相似的部分，讀音也相近，如 /ui/ 和 /iu/ 兩個符號僅是順序不同而已。這種相似性對小學生造成很大的認讀困難。為了幫助孩子記認這些複韻母，我們採用了字音提示法，例如，當孩子看著拼音符號 /ai/，讀不出來時，我們就提示他們學過的熟悉兒歌：“哥哥高，妹妹——”學生會立即接著說：“妹妹矮，ai。”學生讀不出韻母 /ang/ 時，我們提示：“小豬不洗澡，”，他會接著背誦：“身上真骯髒，ang。”這種方法對孩子認讀複韻母有一定的幫助。

掌握拼音的正確發音

學生會認讀了拼音字母，還不能保證他們掌握了拼音的正確發音。我們在拼音教學研究中發現，孩子對著一個個單獨的拼音字母，能夠發音準確，但是，他們在實際拼讀詞或詞組時，或朗讀課文時，情況就不同了。學生對於吳 /wu/，大 /da/，羊 /yang/，馬 /ma/ 這樣簡單的拼音音節能夠非常準確地拼讀出來，但是遇上難點聲母和韻母的音節，學生的困難就出來了，錯誤較多。例如，我們的學生已經掌握了聲母 /j/ 的發音，能夠正確地發出 /j/ 的音，但是當 /j/ 出現在介音前，學生傾向省略介音，把 /j/ 發成 /z/ 或 /zh/，如，把腳(jiao)說成早(/zao/)或找(/zhao/)，把九(jiu)說成走(/zou/)或肘(/zhou/)。對於 /jiao/ 這樣的難點音，我們需要帶領學生多次拼讀，反復練習，學生才能掌握住。下面我們來討論學生最容易出錯的拼音。

除了剛剛提到的 /j/ 加介音的難音，學生常常同樣有規律地把 /q x/ 和 /c s/ 或 /ch sh/ 混淆一起，尤其是當 /q, x/ 出現在介音之前，學生同樣傾向省略介音，再把 /q/ 發成 /c/ 或 /ch/，把 /x/ 發成 /s/ 或 /sh/，如，把瞧(/qiao/)說成曹(/cao/)或朝(/chao/)，把休(/xiu/)發成搜(/sou/)或收(/shou/)。香港小學生還傾向把 /n/ 發成 /l/（如，把你說成李），/l/ 發成 /l/ 或 /y/（如，熱說成了樂，讓說成了樣），把 /h/ 發成 /k/（把畫畫說成跨跨，把喝水說成科水）。這些難點音在普通話初學階段發錯的比例很大，我們在拼音教學階段著重訓練學生發這幾個音，用拼音符號來提示學生這些音之間的區別。對於學生省略介音的傾向，我們在教學這些有介音的音節時，採用三拼法的拼讀方法，有意地稍稍加長和加重介

音的發音，提醒學生對介音的注意（有關三拼法見第二節的討論）。通過拼音練習，絕大部分學生完全能夠正確區別這些音，在單獨讀聲母時發音準確，但是，少數學生有時讀課文或說話時，還會混淆。他們的錯讀也有一些規律。他們把 /h/ 發成 /k/，與這個聲母後面跟甚麼韻母有關，例如，/h/ 和 /a/ 相拼時，學生能夠正確發出 /ha/，但是，/h/ 與 /u/、/ua/ 或 /ui/ 等韻母相拼時，學生較容易把 /h/ 發成 /k/。另一種情況是，如果拼讀的音節旁邊有漢字時，學生讀錯的比例就大一些，如，把刀(/dao/)發成 /dou/，把高(/gao/)讀成 /gou/。因為學生看到漢字，受粵語字音的影響。這種讀音不穩定性也反映在介音 + 複韻母的音節中，學生單獨讀有介音的音節時，正確率高，但是，讀漢字的時候或課文時，他們常常會漏了介音。如：把貓(/miao/)讀成 /mao/，把電(dian)影讀成 /dan/ 影，把亮(liang)讀成 /lang/。很明顯，這些都是粵語的影響。第二語言的書面文字干擾學生第二語言發音是學習第二語言的一種現象(Young-Scholten, 1995)。

影響香港孩子普通話發音的因素是很複雜的，粵語的影響是一大因素，但是也有非母語的影響，有些問題是語言習得中的普遍問題，有些是普通話中的某些特殊音素引起的。由於篇幅關係，有關這方面的問題我們將另文專題討論。有關第二語言的語音系統習得可以參看 Archibald (1998), Yavas (1994)。

五．結論

通過一年的漢語拼音教學實驗，我們認為，在香港小學進行漢語拼音教學的前提是學生必須已經熟悉普通話，具有普通話基本交流能力。學生有了這樣一定的普通話語音積累，拼音教學才能有效、順利。我們普通話實驗班的學生在一、二年級通過大量的聽和說普通話，熟悉了普通話的語音，掌握了一定的普通話詞彙，有了一定的普通話交流能力，他們可以在三年級開始學習拼音，他們能夠辨認拼音符號，能夠正確地發音，他們能夠容易地學會按拼音查字典。另外，有效的拼音教學的關鍵一環是我們的拼音教材和課堂拼音活動必須符合孩子的語言特點和興趣，拼音教學要重視興趣性、活動性和交流性，也就是說，要把拼音教學與課堂的普通話交流活動結合起來，幫助學生更準確、更流利、更有信心地用普通話交流。

注釋

- 1 此項研究由香港語文基金資助，編號為：G/CP/001/97。沒有語文基金的支持，我們不可能完成這項教學研究，我們在此向語文基金表示衷心的感謝。同時，我們也感謝兩位評審員對這篇文章提出了中肯的建議。
- 2 香港課程發展議會編訂的“普通話科小學課程綱要”(1997)指定的拼音學習目標是：
 - 第一學習階段(小一至小三)掌握正確書寫及標注聲調符號的能力。
 - 第二學習階段(小四至小六)掌握正確書寫及運用漢語拼音或注音符號的能力。
- 3 這37個注音字母是：ㄅ ㄆ ㄇ ㄋ ㄌ ㄍ ㄎ ㄗ ㄘ ㄙ ㄊ ㄕ ㄖ ㄛ ㄜ ㄝ ㄟ ㄠ ㄡ ㄣ ㄤ ㄨ ㄩ ㄚ ㄢ ㄣ ㄥ ㄨ ㄩ ㄚ ㄢ ㄣ ㄥ ㄨ ㄩ ㄚ ㄢ ㄣ ㄥ。除了8個複合韻母，其他都是音素字母。
- 4 對於沒有一定普通話語音基礎的香港小學生，我們不能急於教拼音。但是，我們注意到，在中國的外國留學生學習漢語時，往往在學習的初始階段就學漢語拼音，而且效果不錯。他們為什麼可以這麼做？原因是成人和孩子不同，成人對於抽象的符號有歸納的能力，能找出其中的規律來記憶。尤其是母語使用拉丁文字的外國留學生，熟悉拉丁字母，拼讀字母的能力強，他們知道了漢語拼音每個字母的讀音以及拼讀規則，很快就能以這一工具來拼讀漢字。
- 5 《漢語拼音方案》的韻母表中共列出29個複韻母。中國內地的小學語文教材重點教18個複韻母。他們作了兩個變動：一 加上 /er/，把 /er/ 作為複韻母教；二 將拼音方案中12個帶 /i, u, ü/ 介音的複韻母刪去，這12個複韻母是 /ia, ua, uo, uai, iao, ian, uan, üan, iang, uang, ueng, iong/。把這12個複韻母看作是介音 /i, u, ü/ 與其他複韻母的組合，不作為獨立的複韻母來教。減少了複韻母的數目，有助於小學生掌握複韻母。我們採用了內地小學18個複韻母的拼音教學安排。在教學有介音的音節時，採用三拼法的拼音方法。

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資訊科技於常識科跨範疇統整之應用

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本文的目的，是分享一些有用的資源去支援常識科的跨範疇統整。

香港教育統籌委員會第四號報告書指出課程出現問題是因為學校不同課程的分割。根據課程發展委員會的建議，將社會、科學、健教三科綜合成為常識科，已於1996年推行。此課程的另一項優點是包容跨課程的主題，例如：環境教育，公民教育，倫理道德教育及性教育。根據課程發展議會於2000年十一月的諮詢文件，常識科會進一步修訂，課程架構包括個人、社會及人文教育，科學教育，與科技教育三個學習領域的基本學習元素；以及六個學習範疇：健康、環境、社會、國民身份認同與中華文化、了解世界與認識資訊年代，與生活科學與科技。

常識科課程改革主要路向之一，是讓學生在學習過程中運用資訊科技，進行探究學習，增強科學與科技元素的教學。而作為跨學習領域的課程，常識科締造了很大的空間讓學生培養終身學習所需的共通能力。

The Application of IT on Cross-strand Integration in General Studies

The purpose of this paper is to share with General Studies teachers some resources to support the Cross-strand Integration.

The Education Commission Report No. 4 (1990) expressed that curriculum fragmentation and compartmentalization in the school curriculum was a source of curriculum problems. The integration of related topics in Primary Science, Health Education, and Social Studies resulted the subject General Studies that has already been implemented in 1996. Another outstanding feature of the curriculum is that cross-curricular themes such as environmental education, civic education, ethical/moral education and sex education can be encompassed. According to the consultation document released in November 2000, the framework of GS curriculum would be further revised to include 3 key learning areas (personal, social & humanities education; science education; technology education) and six strands (health; environment; community; national identity and the Chinese culture; global understanding and the information era; science and technology in everyday life).

One of the main approaches for GS curriculum reform is to allow pupils to use IT during the learning process, enabling them to take part in enquiry approach, and enhancing the teaching of science and technology elements. As a cross-strand curriculum, GS provides much space for the development of generic skills and lifelong learning.

一. 香港小學常識科的跨範疇統整

教統會第4號報告書(Education Commission, 1990)指出課程出現問題是因為學校不同課程的分割。為了減輕這個問題，課程發展者將小學其中三科綜合成為常識科，已於1996年推行，並得到很多小學的採用。

根據課程發展委員會(CDC, 1994)的建議，將社會、科學、健教三科綜合成為常識科，不單簡化了相似的課程，更容許學童在不同的角度觀察事物，從而有一個整體的學習經驗。此課程的另一項優點是包容跨課程的主題，例如：環境教育，公民教育，倫理道德教育及性教育。

香港於1997年回歸中國之後，特區政府之教育署進行了一系列的課程改革，其中亦涉及了常識科。課程發展議會於2000年11月發表了常識科的諮詢文件，建議分短期(2000至2005年)，中期(2005至2010年)和長期(2010年以後)三階段去達致教育目標。

常識科在未來十五年的課程架構，是連繫以下三個主要學習領域：個人、社會及人文教育，科學教育，與科技教育；以及以下六個學習範疇：健康、環境、社會、國民身份認同與中華文化、了解世界與認識資訊年代，與生活科學與科技。

除了三領域六範疇之外，作為跨學習領域的課程，常識科締造了空間讓學生培養終身學習所需的共通能

力，科學探索所需的探究技巧，人生價值觀和正確態度，以及健康生活好習慣。此外，常識科亦甚為鼓勵課堂以外的全方位學習，例如參觀博物館的設施等，以補充老師講解之不足。

常識科課程在跨範疇統整方面具有兩個特色：跨學科(Interdisciplinary)教學取向和「科技與社會」(STS)教學取向。老師們可以使用資訊科技，更能生動有趣地將這兩個特色發揮出來。

二. 簡介課程統整的背景和含意

香港教育工作者的焦點，在政府八十年代推行九年免費及強迫教育前，是放在「量」方面；但到了九十年代，則轉移 到「質」方面。教育統籌委員會第四號報告書(1990)指出：「課程所提供的獨立科目眾多，範圍廣泛，以致十分鬆散，而形成硬性將課程劃分的現象...我們認為在可行範圍內，將小學和初中階段的科目進一步綜合起來，才是解決的方法」。隸屬課程發展處的「學科綜合小組」由於1992年成立，目的在協助學校發展一套方法，消弭科目間的硬性界限和割裂。

「統整」可以包含經驗的統整、社會的統整、知識的統整、以及課程的統整四個層面。「課程統整」在廣意而言，是「學習者領略到不同領域知識之間的聯繫，完成一個綜合的任務，或得到一幅知識全景，一個世界觀」(歐用生，1999，頁6)。而狹義則有不同解釋，可以是跨科，或同科而跨課題，也可能是單指「學以致用」。本文所謂的常識科跨範疇統整，則屬於同科而跨課題的。

三. 資訊科技在常識科教學上的應用

常識科的短期目標之一，是在學校方面開發課本以外的學習資源，例如著重探究與解決問題網上學習材料(課程發展議會，2000a，頁4)。該科課程改革主要路向之一，是讓學生在學習過程中運用資訊科技，進行探究學習，增強科學與科技元素的教學(2000b)。而作為跨學習領域的課程，常識科締造了很大的空間讓學生培養終身學習所需的共通能力(2000c，頁8)。

資訊技術正好提供了這方面的資源，令學生能足不出戶就能在萬維網上取得各種信息，例如博物館的設施。還有，學校之間，以及學校與政府之間，也可以透

過萬維網互通消息以及互用資源。本文的目的，就是探討如何運用資訊科技去支援常識科的跨範疇統整。

香港教育統籌局局長羅范椒芬在《資訊科技進校園-教與學新篇》(香港教育署，1999)的獻辭中說：「資訊科技教育是二十一世紀優質教育的基石。...善用資訊科技，會使過往主要以課本為根據、以教師為中心的教學模式，轉為較著重互動，並以學生為中心的模式。...香港特別行政區政府決心推行一九九八年十一月發表的《與時並進，善用資訊科技學習》五年策略所載的資訊科技教育政策。我們的目標，是把香港的學校變為充滿生氣及創意的學習園地」。由以上演辭可見香港政府對推廣資訊科技以改善教育的決心。

香港教育署為配合資訊科發展，擬增加全港中小學視聽器材的設備，估計每校約需三十萬元，而全港則需費用最少三億元。這些設備包括流動多媒體投影器、數碼視像相機、多媒體電腦系統、數碼雷射光碟機等。這些先進設備器材可以用於常識科教學，令到這科的學習更加活潑、生動、有趣、多采多姿。此外，教育署亦透過學校為本的計劃開發常識科的教學軟件，更鼓勵學校教師修讀資訊科技課程。

四. 應用資訊科技在常識科跨範疇統整的舉隅

下列謹舉一個例子，說明這些網址如何促進跨範疇的統整。

在「筷子是一種槓桿」這個網址(<http://www.bud.org.tw/Ma/Ma04.htm>)上，它提出了三點：1. 你會使用筷子嗎？2. 拿筷子的方法。3. 槓桿是什麼？其實第1點是關於態度的，第2點是關於技能的，第3點是關於知識的。這就是態度、技能和知識三方面的統整。在態度方面，該網址指出若一個華人被問及是否會使用筷子，他最初會覺得這是一個笨拙的問題；但當他了解到自己其實真的不會正確地使用筷子，他又可能覺得困窘發愁了。在技能方面，該網址圖文並茂地解釋正確使用拿筷子的方法，若跟着練習一定會掌握這種技能。在知識方面，該網址指出筷子是屬於機械類的第三類槓桿，因為力點比重點距離支點近，所以運用起來會比較費力。但若能令到我們的「吃相」優雅，也同時訓練我們眼明手快與靈巧，這也真要謝謝我們智慧超強，心靈手巧的老祖先。因此這網址也可用來統整「國民身份認同與中華文化」吧。

五. 有助常識科跨學科課程統整的網址例子

以下是簡介一些資訊科技在常識科跨範疇統整的網址例子：

1. 使用萬維網取得的統整資源

	題目	網址	內容簡介	年級	統整範疇
A. 一般性統整					
1.	常識科統整	http://www.ied.edu.hk/ss/gs-ref.htm	包括教學、檢索工具、各大報章刊物、健康教育、急救、性教育、疾病、環保、家庭、科學、天文宇宙、中國文化歷史、博物館、地理、經濟、香港特別行政區、教育、發展、市區、房屋、天氣、公共機構、生活、電腦教學等等。	初 小 高 小	科學 / 健教 / 社會
2.	香港資訊教育城	http://resources.hkedcity.net/srch_result.phtml?search_kla=4&search_sub=6&search_type=media	香港資訊教育城的教學資源庫支援中小學各科，在小學常識科它提供了數以百計的資訊項目，分類為科學教育、科技教育、個人、社會及人文教育等，資料豐富，目不暇給。	初 小 高 小	科學 / 科技 / 社會 / 健教等
3.	課程發展處「全方位學習活動資料庫」	http://cd.ed.gov.hk/default_chi.asp	香港教育署課程發展處為配合八個主要學習範疇和跨越多個學習範疇的統整，鼓勵全方位學習活動。在這個網址，有教學資源分享，跨課程項目包括常識科、環境教育、公民教育、資訊科技、性教育、道德教育、課程統整等。	初 小 高 小	科學 / 科技 / 社會 / 健教等
4.	「優質教育網上資源中心及有關研究	http://www.info.gov.hk/qef/ http://qcrc.qef.org.hk/edu/edu-result.phtml?subject_id=5&Language=Chinese	香港的優質教育基金贊助了不少的研究項目，透過資訊科技協助常識科的教學。與資訊教育城的教學資源庫相似，這網址亦支援中小學各科，包括小學常識科，但項目則較少。	初 小 高 小	科學 / 科技 / 社會 / 健教等
5.	香港教育署「資訊科技教育」	http://www.ited.ed.gov.hk/Chinese/resources/IT_in_Education_websites/chinese_subjectwebsite_detail.asp?data=16	網站內有適合中小學師生瀏覽的各「學科網址」，其中常識科之資料暫時有昆蟲、親子動物園、各國歷法、網絡小博士、認識野生生物、常識教學庫等。	初 小 高 小	科學 / 環境等

	題目	內容簡介	統整範疇		
B. 健康（統整科學/健教/社會等）					
1.	急救手冊	http://www.geocities.com/Tokyo/Bay/9229/kapkau.htm	1.急救常識介紹 2.急救箱	高 小	科學/健教
2.	教育城小學常識學科園地	http://www.hkedcity.net/iworld/iclub_main.phtml?iclub_id=40	活動日程中有介紹各項有關科學/健教/社會等的常識科活動，例如「常識百搭」。	初 小 高 小	科學/健教/社會
3.	大眾健康醫學(認識消化不良的疾病)	http://www.jct.com.tw/health/gi_2.htm	消化系統和消化不良的原因與預防方法	高 小	科學/健教/社會
4.	香港健康網	http://www.hkhealthy.com	介紹人類需要的營養，如蛋白質，維他命	高 小	科學/健教/社會
5.	健康小百科(台北市政府衛生局網站)	http://edu.health.gov.tw/	認識自己的身體、健康資訊、保健服務、傳染病防治和初級急救	高 小	科學/健教/社會
6.	性本善網上百科	http://www.newsnet.com.mo/nature/	性知識、性疾病及避孕的方法	高 小	科學/社會/健教/德育教育
7.	家計會性教育網頁	http://www.famplan.org.hk/sexedu/index.htm	性教育資料	高 小	科學/健教/社會
8.	保健好拍檔	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=2700&res_current=0	介紹各個為保持環境衛生及保障市民健康而設的政府部門	高 小	科學/健教/社會
9.	食物金字塔構成	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=552&res_current=0	介紹食物金字塔構成	初 小 高 小	科學/健教/社會
10.	病從口入 -- 不潔的食物	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=696&res_current=0	內容有街邊小販所賣的食物，容易受到污染	初 小 高 小	科學/健教/社會

	題目	內容簡介	統整範疇		
C. 環境（統整環境／社會／科學等）					
1.	環境保護網	http://www.hkedcity.net/ihouse/gsl973/	介紹環境污染	高 小	科學／社會／健教／環境
2.	香港的污染	http://home.netvigator.com/~thomast/pollution/1.html	介紹不同的香港的污染	高 小	社會／科學／健教／環境
3.	消防小常識	http://www.tpf.gov.tw/110.htm	這個網頁提供了很多有關消防的常識 1.火災發生時你怎麼辦 2.用火用電安全 3.火災避難逃生方法 4.居家防火安全診斷 5.公共場所防火安全診斷	高 小	科學／社會／健教／環境
4.	郊野公園十大景點	http://www.info.gov.hk/afd/afdparks/tensites.htm	介紹本港最受歡迎的十大景點的位置及其特色，還有大量圖片及錄像	初 小 高 小	健教／社會／環境
5.	環境及持續發展教育網	http://www.ied.edu.hk/esdweb/	網頁內載有輔助教材資料、互動教室、參考資料、本地及全球超連結、每月熱點推介	高 小	科學／社會／健教／環境
6.	郊野公園	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=5758&res_current=0	1. 政府設立郊野公園的目的。 2. 郊野公園和海岸公園概況。 3. 遊覽郊野公園和海岸公園的守則。 4. 愛護和保存天然資源的重要性。	高 小	科學／社會／健教／環境
7.	空氣污染 - 發電站排放的污染物	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=853&res_current=0	發電站排放的污染物	高 小	科學／社會／健教／環境
8.	空氣污染 - 植物的作用	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=856&res_current=0	這片段簡介植物對大氣的重要性	高 小	科學／社會／環境
9.	荃錦自然教育徑	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=5&id=5002&res_current=0	介紹該教育徑之特色	高 小	科學／社會／健教／環境

	題目	網址	內容簡介	年級	統整範疇
10.	公園	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=1&id=380&res_current=1	1. 香港的公園 2. 香港動植物公園裏的動物和植物 3. 一些在公園裏要遵守的規則	初 小	科學/社會/健教/環境
11.	自然界的資源	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=2532&res_current=0	1. 講解什麼是資源和資源的分類 2. 人類為何有開發資源的需要 3. 開發資源引起的問題及改善方法 4. 如何善用資源及愛護環境	高 小	科學/社會/健教/環境
12.	海岸生態相片庫-漁農自然護理署	http://www.info.gov.hk/afd/mpark/mphoto1.htm	海洋生物相片	高 小	科學/社會/環境
13.	環境食物局	http://www.info.gov.hk/efb/chinese/front.html	食物供應及食物安全 環境衛生 環境保護及自然護理	高 小	社會/健教/環境
14.	環境保護運動委員會	http://www.ecc.org.hk/new/big-5/index2-big-5.asp	各期之環保通訊月刊，其內有多元性的環保報導。	高 小	社會/健教/環境
15.	香港天文台	http://www.info.gov.hk/hko/contentc.htm	包括天氣預測、天文及潮汐、地震資料、熱帶氣旋等	高 小	科技/社會/環境
16.	香港地下天文台	http://www.weather.org.hk/chinese/index.shtml	包括香港現時天氣、衛星雲圖及動畫、海洋及航空資料等	高 小	科技/社會/環境
17.	漁農處	http://www.info.gov.hk/afd/chinese/content.htm	介紹動物、植物及除蟲劑、郊野公園及海岸公園、自然護理、農業、漁業及牲畜飼養等		
18.	郊野公園及特別地區	http://www.info.gov.hk/afd/afdparks/cpark.htm	香港的各區郊野公園、康樂設施、環保教育、遊客中心等		
D. 國民身份認同與中華文化（統整德育教育/社會/公民教育/科學）					
1.	家族稱謂	http://www.c3s.org.sg/cgi-bin/g2bcgi.pl/local/FTree/fam.html	以圖列方式介紹了直屬親人、父系親人及母系親人的稱謂與關係	初 小	德育教育/社會
2.	樂施會無窮校園	http://www.oxfam.org.hk/chinese/cyberschool/	介紹世界發展狀況的全球公民教育	高 小	公民教育
3.	Easy Do 好公民	http://www.easydo.org.hk/easydo/index.htm	此網站除提供一般的公民教育資料外，亦透過小遊戲及問答以提高同學們對公民教育的認識及興趣	高 小	公民教育/社會

	題目	網址	內容簡介	年級	統整範疇
4.	公民教育村	http://www.cpce.gcn.gov.hk/	由公民教育委員會製作的教材資料及講解有關公民教育的法律及條例	高 小	公民教育 / 社會
5.	另有 Teen 地	http://www.icac.org.hk/teensland/	廉政公署附屬的青少年網站。此網站內的「廉政搜查課」以有趣的動畫故事教導青少年廉政意識	高 小	公民教育 / 社會 / 德育教育
6.	明光社	http://www.truth-light.org.hk/	針對社會及家庭倫理、傳媒、性文化三方面對社會風氣造成的影響,作出分析和回應	高 小	公民教育 / 社會 / 德育教育
7.	China the Beautiful	http://www.chinapage.com/china.html	A guide to classical Chinese art, calligraphy, poetry, history, literature, painting and philosophy	高 小	公民教育 / 社會 / 德育教育
8.	大江南北	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=2730&res_current=0	介紹中國的地理特徵及地理環境	高 小	科學 / 社會
9.	一家親	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=2578&res_current=0	節目透過媳婦及孫兒力勸爺爺放棄回鄉的念頭帶出國慶的由來及中華人民共和國成立的背景	高 小	科學 / 社會
10.	烽火連香江	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=2572&res_current=0	主要介紹鴉片戰爭和中日戰爭的成因,以及這兩場戰爭對香港發展所造成的影響	高 小	社會 / 國民身份認同
11.	公民教育中心	http://www.ied.edu.hk/sfe/cce/index.htm	培養正面的公民取向,為社會服務。其活動涵蓋公民教育的三大範疇:價值、公民素養及環境教育。	高 小	社會 / 公民教育 / 環境
12.	人文及社會科學研習中心	http://www.ied.edu.hk/lc/lc-headC.htm	為常識、文化與社會、人文學科、環境學習、公民及道德教育等跨科目課程提供資源的支援。	高 小	社會 / 公民教育 / 環境
E. 了解世界與認識資訊年代 (統整科學 / 社會 / 資訊科技)					
1.	通訊和大眾傳播	http://www.info.gov.hk/hkbi/chihkbi/10/topic10.htm	介紹各通訊和大眾傳播	高 小	科學 / 社會
2.	世界各國國旗	http://home1.8d8d.com/Personal/Hackers/093216888.tw.to/	包括各洲地圖、特殊旗幟(如國際組織旗幟)和新增國旗國家總表	高 小	公民教育 / 社會

	題目	網址	內容簡介	年級	統整範疇
3.	資訊科技 -Garden	http://www.it-garden.com/index1.asp	主要以動畫、旁白及圖文的活動形式和介紹各種實用及有趣的軟件及其基本用法	初 小 高 小	科學/社會/資訊科技
4.	資訊與生活	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=5697&res_current=0	介紹大眾傳播媒體對我們日常生活的影響	高 小	科學/社會/資訊科技
5.	漫遊資訊科技世界 - 互聯網對資訊科技的影響	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=4130&res_current=0	介紹大眾傳播媒體對我們日常生活的影響	高 小	科學/社會/資訊科技
6.	漫遊資訊科技世界 - 數碼化生活(一)	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=4132&res_current=0	介紹日常生活數化對社會帶來之好處	高 小	科學/社會/資訊科技
7.	漫遊資訊科技世界 - 數碼化生活(二)	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=4133&res_current=0	介紹互聯網對資訊科技發展	高 小	科學/社會/資訊科技
8.	信息技術	http://resources.hkedcity.net/res_content.phtml?type_id=6&id=5701&res_current=0	使學生認識一些傳遞信息和儲存資料的方法及了解先進信息技術對人類生活的影響	高 小	資訊科技 / 社會
9.	美國大地衛星查詢條件	http://www.csr.sr.ncu.edu.tw/	可以查詢地球上任何一地點之經度及緯度	高 小	資訊科技 / 社會 / 環境
10.	線上影像資料查詢	http://www.csr.sr.ncu.edu.tw/service/query/	氣象衛星影像查詢、資源衛星資料等	高 小	資訊科技 / 社會 / 環境
11.	太空上的地球	http://earth.jsc.nasa.gov/geon.html	地球各地區城市之位置、地形、氣候特徵及生態等	高 小	資訊科技 / 社會 / 環境

2. 使用光碟取得的統整資源

	題目	出版社及年份	內容簡介	年級	統整
A. 一般性統整					
1.	小學常識科錄像短片資料庫	香港教育學院製作; 香港: 2000。	本光碟提供多個香港小學常識科課題的錄像短片, 供教育學院的準教師們製作多媒體教材, 以支援資訊科技教育。	初 小 高 小	社會/科學/健教等
2.	i計劃: 資訊科技於小學課堂的應用	香港教育學院製作; 香港: 2000。	本軟件旨在提供一些利用資訊科技來教授小學常識科的經驗, 並強調"互動"在製作軟件和實驗教學過程中的重要性。	初 小 高 小	社會/科學/健教等
B. 健康(統整科學/健教/社會/德育)					
1.	生活中的奧妙	台灣: 光復書局, 1998。	選錄十餘項日常生活中常見的事物, 包括毛毛蟲, 小嬰兒, 水, 葡萄, 月亮等, 以動畫, 旁白, 插畫呈現其中的奧妙, 讓小朋友了解毛毛蟲如何變成蝴蝶, 小嬰兒怎麼來的...等現象或原理	初 小 高 小	科學/健教
2.	人體也瘋狂	台北: 草莓資訊股份有限公司; 香港: 太華國際有限公司, 1997。	本軟體透過生動活潑的方式, 解說生活中經常碰到的生理狀況, 如嘔吐, 流鼻涕, 流汗等等, 並提供解決的方法	初 小 高 小	科學/健教
3.	親子性教育電腦光碟。兒童篇, 家長篇	[香港]: 香港家庭計劃指導會, 1998。	性教育電腦光碟	初 小 高 小	科學/健教/社會
4.	長大的秘密	台北: 會宇多媒體, 1998。	以輕鬆活潑自然的手法, 協助家長教導兒童在性方面的知識。	高 小	科學/健教
C. 環境(統整社會/科學/健教/公民教育)					
1.	一休自然攻略集	台北: 草莓資訊股份有限公司, 1997。	此軟件有三個小故事, 又分十二個等級。透過各式各樣不同類型的題目, 深入淺出, 讓小朋友循序漸進地學習自然。	初 小 高 小	社會/科學/健教
2.	地球探索	Hong Kong: VTechSoft Holding, 1999。	本光碟通過五項互動活動和一本深入淺出的地球科學剪貼簿, 講述有關地球的板塊構造, 礦物, 海洋上的風暴, 環境和海水污染的知識	高 小	科學/社會/健教
3.	親親大自然	香港: 教育署, 1999。	光碟附有動植物圖片的補充資料, 與及一輯由世界自然(香港)基金會所提供的資料單張, 讓同學加深對生物世界的認識。可增強學生對有關課題的興趣及喚起同學對大自然及瀕臨絕種動物的關注。	高 小	科學/社會

	題目	網址	內容簡介	年級	統整範疇
4.	地球只得一個。 環保篇	香港：多媒體教材出版有限公司，[1999]。	隨著社會的發展，人類的生活起了很大的變化，同時亦對周圍環境造成了相當的破壞。酸雨的形成，臭氧層的破壞，空氣質素每況愈下等，已逐步危害人類健康和生活，本光碟讓學生認識自然資源，並教導同學如何愛護地球，提高保護環境的意識。	高 小	科學/社會
5.	世界動物村	台北：嘉利博資訊有限公司，[199-]。	以數十種動物為主角，配合獨創的紙雕模型，透過語音、文字和動畫等，帶領你暢遊奇妙的動物世界。	初 小 高 小	科學/語文
D. 國民身份認同與中華文化（統整德育教育/社會/公民教育）					
1.	歷史穿梭	Hong Kong : V T e c h S o f t Holding, 1999。	本光碟通過五項互動活動和一本深入淺出的歷史剪貼簿，講述有關歷史發展，數學系統，時間錦囊，考古學和古代文化	初 小	德育教育/ 社會
2.	中國系列	[台北]：Techwin Technology, 1996。	本套軟件運用多媒體及互動的功能，讓小朋友認識中國的文化，包括長城，漢字，節慶及京劇	初 小 高 小	公民教育
3.	知多祖國一點點	香港：香港教育工作者聯會，2000。	本軟件除展示講解外，每一部分都附有教學設計，既可讓學生在課餘自習，老師也可以在課內運用，例如<溫故知新>可供小組討論，<民族大搜查>可讓學生先看提示，或聽聽民族歌曲才作答	高 小	公民教育/ 社會
4.	認識祖國	香港：公民教育委員會，1999。	本光碟以趣味性及輕鬆的手法向兒童及青少年介紹國家的風貌，包括地理環境，人民生活，國旗，國歌及首都風光等，並藉著互動遊戲考考他們對國家的認識。	高 小	公民教育/ 社會
5.	昔日的香港	香港：教育署課程發展處跨學科課程組編，2000。	講述本港的歷史發展及中國近代的重要歷史事件與本港發展的關係。透過這些內容和遊戲，學生可以深入認識香港的歷史發展概況，以及香港與祖國不可分割的關係，從而培養關心社會和祖國，尊重祖國的文化傳統及對國家的歸屬感，並以持平的態度去解答分析歷史和政治事件。	高 小	公民教育/ 社會/國民身份認同
E. 了解世界與認識資訊年代（統整科學/社會/資訊科技）					
1.	用電腦學電腦。 第一集。基礎篇	台灣：光復書局，1997。	利用多媒體電腦的視聽效果，加上互動式的設計，幫助讀者學習電腦	初 小	科學/社會

	題目	網址	內容簡介	年級	統整範疇
2.	訊息萬變	Hong Kong : V Tech Soft Holding, 1999。	本光碟通過五項互動活動和一本深入淺出的通訊剪貼簿，講述有關語言，連線，暗號，密碼和通訊概念的知識	初 小 高 小	科學/社會/資訊科技
3.	電腦基本操作	香港：迪威教育出版社，1990。	本光碟透過遊戲，示範及小測驗等環節，讓小學生輕鬆地學習電腦基本操作	初 小 高 小	科學/社會/資訊科技
4.	電訊服務在資訊社會中所扮演的角色	香港：電訊管理局，1999。	提供一套教授電訊服務在資訊社會中主要發展和影響的教學工具，讓教師有效地教授學生電訊及其他通訊服務在日常生活及香港社會發展上的角色，從而啟發他們的創造力，思考力及周遭事物的觸覺。	高 小	科學/社會/資訊科技
5.	探索太陽系	香港：多媒體教材出版有限公司，1997。	以趣味的故事，帶出九大行星每顆的特點，月球大解剖，還有地球四季的成因等，教導學生天文地理等不易理解的學問，把抽象而呆板的天文星體活現眼前。	高 小	科學/環境/資訊科技

3. 圖像模擬軟件

不少的圖像模擬軟件正在開發中。例如香港大學的講師(Law, 1998)在研討會上積極介紹教師們如何可以透過《模擬世界》(Worldmaker)產生的模擬遊戲來教授小學常識科，以提高學生的學習興趣和幫助他們理解維持生態平衡的關係、生物種類多樣性，和山火的蔓延和控制等。

由於香港政府刻下正全力發展資訊科技教育，短期內亦會由中學推廣至小學。而目前電腦科技發展急劇，亦吸引了不少科學教師參與開發。例如在物理學，電子計算機之模擬系統能提供學生模擬操縱「力與動力的微型世界」(Tao, 1996)和「電路模擬程式」(Wong, 1996)。相信這些應用於中學科學教育的多媒體技術也將來會簡化地應用於小學常識科的教學上。

其實，多媒體技術的開發和有關網站是數之不盡的，本文所報導的只是一些對小學常識科跨範疇統整上較為有用的資源，只屬鳳毛麟角，還望本文能拋磚引玉，吸引老師多些善用已開發的資訊科技資源，令到在常識科各範疇的統整教學上有所幫助，是所至盼。

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中文發展性閱讀障礙及其影響因素的研究—— 北京普通話和香港粵語兒童的比較調查

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本研究采用家長問卷調查方式，在香港和北京兩地進行了調查，主要考察了中文閱讀障礙的特點，不同口語背景對閱讀障礙的影響以及閱讀與知覺和動作技能之間的關係。結果發現，中文閱讀障礙在不同年級兒童中有不同的表現，低年級兒童最大的困難是字形識別、語音解碼與書面語理解，高年級兒童讀寫上的最大困難是段落產生；口語背景影響兒童的閱讀獲得及閱讀障礙的表現；中文兒童讀寫障礙與知覺加工和動作技能上的缺損顯著相關。這些結果對於促進對閱讀障礙機制的理解以及鑒別和治療均具有重要意義。

A Study of Contributory Factors and Developmental Reading Disabilities in Chinese Children- A Comparative Study Between Cantonese and Putonghua among children in Hong Kong and Beijing

A survey was conducted among parents to investigate the specific characteristics of children with reading disabilities. The effect of different dialects and the relationship between reading, perceptual processing and motor skills were also studied. Different presented characteristics showed reading disabilities among different grades of students. Lower graders had the most difficulties in word recognition, phonological decoding, and comprehension in written characters, while production of paragraphs seemed to be the most difficult part among higher graders. A child's spoken language affects on reading acquisition and presentations of reading disabilities. Chinese reading disabilities were closely related with perceptual processing and deficits in motor skills. These results enhance the understanding of the mechanism of reading disabilities, and bring the significant contribution of identification and teaching children with reading disabilities.

一. 前言

發展性閱讀障礙是指兒童雖然智力正常，但由于某些先天原因導致其閱讀成績明顯落後於其年齡所應達到水平的現象。研究表明，中文學齡兒童的閱讀障礙發生率在4%-8%之間[1]。兒童一旦產生閱讀障礙，對其認知、情感、自我概念以及社會性發展都會產生重大影響，因而，發展性閱讀障礙成為教育學、心理學、認知神經科學和行?遺傳學等多門學科共同關注的課題。

許多研究者認為發展性閱讀障礙是一種語言學層次的障礙，主要表現為言語資訊的表徵和加工上存在障礙。一致的證據表明，拼音文字中兒童的閱讀障礙出現在單詞水平，而且最主要的閱讀障礙表現在語音加工方面。如，語音意識差 (Bradly & Bryant, 1978)，非詞重複困難 (Snowling, 1981)，記憶中的語音編碼差

(Siegel & Ryan, 1988; Rack, 1985) 以及命名困難 (Katz, 1986)。在語音障礙觀點提出初期研究者認為語音障礙的原因是缺少語音分析技能。一個普遍的假設是兒童分析語音結構的困難阻止了他們成功地學習拼寫與語音之間的系統關係。90年代以後，研究者 (Elbro, Nielsen & Petersen, 1994; Swan & Goswami, 1997) 的視角有所轉換，開始從心理詞典內在語音表徵的準確性這一角度考慮閱讀障礙兒童語音意識缺陷和閱讀困難之間的關係，並提出閱讀障礙兒童在語音意識上的不良成績可能反映了他們對要求分析的辭彙沒有正確的語音表徵，或者表徵的質量和組織性很差，因為一系列語音加工的任務如語音意識，口語短時記憶、命名都需要通達語音表徵。類比研究 (Metsala & Brown, 1998) 和大量閱讀與拼寫實驗研究發現閱讀困難兒童在形音轉換過程中存在困難，原因在於沒有形成字素與音位水平上語音表徵與正字法表徵的聯結。

在上述以“語音障礙觀”為中心的語言學研究背景下，研究者非常關注語言文字系統對閱讀障礙表現形式的影響。不同文字系統正字法規則性不同，語言文字的表音程度也不同，使語音解碼的難度有很大差異，對初學者的語音解碼要求也不同，進而影響閱讀障礙的類型與特點。Wimmer (1993, 1996) 考察了在德語 - 這一高度形音一致的語言中，兒童閱讀障礙的性質。發現閱讀障礙兒童表現出了普遍的命名速度障礙。在另一個追?研究中 (Wimmer, 1996)，發現在語音編碼和音位分割中有困難的 12 個學前兒童，4 年後在學校中被診斷?閱讀障礙，他們在入校 7 個月後閱讀非詞和生詞存在困難。但這些兒童到了 3、4 年級在語音編碼和音位分割正確率上的困難就不存在了，取而代之的是閱讀的速度很慢，拼寫成績很差。Wydel 和 Butterworth (1997) 對一個日語和英語的雙語兒童研究發現，他只在英語上表現出語音閱讀障礙，而日語閱讀不存在障礙，作者認為語言文字的規則性和表音單元的大小都影響兒童對該語言的習得難易和障礙是否會?生。這些研究表明語言文字書寫系統影響閱讀障礙的?生及其具體表現類型。

近年來，由於認知神經科學的日益發展和認知加工模組化觀點影響的漸漸減弱，閱讀障礙研究中的另外一種觀點 - 即主張閱讀障礙與基本知覺加工過程有關的觀點迅速得到發展。這種觀點認為，閱讀障礙是由更深層、更基本的視覺與聽覺障礙造成的，其根本原因在於非語言的聽覺和視覺能力的損傷或發展不完善。這類理論的核心是閱讀障礙沒有語言特异性，不局限於語言學層次。這種觀點也得到了許多研究支援，這方面的研究包括視覺加工、聽覺加工和時間控制加工。在視覺領域研究者 (Stein, 1994; Lovegrove, 1994; Slaghuys, 1999) 提出了巨細胞障礙假設，這種假設認為閱讀障礙者視覺神經系統中的巨細胞障礙導致他們對某種類型的視覺刺激加工存在困難，進而影響閱讀。在聽覺領域研究 (Tallal, 1973; Heim, 2000; Talcott, 2000) 發現閱讀障礙者加工快速、系列、短暫呈現的聲音刺激存在障礙。研究者 (Frith, 1996; Stein, 1997) 認為閱讀障礙者加工快速刺激輸入障礙反應了普遍的時間知覺障礙。這方面的研究發展非常迅速，理論觀點非常明確，並且直接與內在的神經機制相聯繫，形成了與傳統的“語言障礙”理論迥然不同的“知覺障礙”理論。另有研究發現閱讀障礙與動作發展水平落後有關。Klasen (1972) 估計 50% 的閱讀障礙兒童呈現出視 - 動障礙。Haslum (1989) 發現動作技能 (扔球、抓球，和不能沿

直線倒退 6 步) 是區分 10 歲閱讀障礙和非閱讀障礙的 6 個顯著變數之一。Nicolson & Fawcett (1996) 提出姿勢不穩能?區分 4 歲學前閱讀障礙。Wolff, Cohen & Drake (1984) 發現閱讀障礙組和控制組在動作序列定時上存在差異。另外，很多證據表明閱讀障礙兒童發音技能受損，這些證據通常被看作語音有關的障礙，但是，同時可能有內在的動作問題。

閱讀障礙的語言學觀點和非語言障礙觀點並不相互矛盾，相反，這兩種觀點相互補充，恰恰說明閱讀作為一種高級的資訊加工過程，受低水平資訊加工過程 (感覺、知覺) 的制約。

從 70 年代到 80 年代漢語閱讀障礙研究經歷了沒有閱讀障礙到研究閱讀障礙行為特點的觀念轉變。視覺和語音在漢語閱讀障礙中所起的作用一直是許多研究者 (曾志朗, 1993; 黃秀霜, 1997) 關心的問題，到目前?止這依然是一個懸而未決的問題。另外一些研究者 (舒華, 孟祥芝, 2000; 孟祥芝, 舒華, 周曉林, 2000) 則從內在知識表徵和加工機制的角度關注漢語閱讀障礙兒童的辭彙表徵和加工過程。這些研究集中在漢語閱讀障礙基本表現形式和特點的研究，但關於起因的研究較少。到目前為止，漢語閱讀障礙是否受不同口語背景的影響是非常有意義，且有待探討的問題，另外，漢語閱讀障礙是否與基本知覺加工技能和動作技能有關也是一個引人注目領域。漢語作為表義文字系統，其形態特點和表音、表義方式與拼音文字存在很大的區別，研究漢語文字系統中發展性閱讀障礙的行為特點及其影響因素對於揭示閱讀障礙發生、發展的普遍規律具有重要意義。

普通話和粵語從文字形態到語音系統都存在很大的差異。北京地區兒童使用普通話。其口語與書面語語音一致，且都有四個聲調。其文字符號是簡體字。香港地區兒童使用粵語，其口語與書面語語音不同，粵語中有六個或九個聲調。其文字符號是繁體字。

基於語言學研究中不同文字系統對閱讀障礙的影響，以及語言及非語言學觀點的理論爭論，本研究擬採用問卷調查的方式，以北京和香港兩地的兒童為研究物件，初步探討漢語閱讀障礙中讀寫障礙的具體形式，以及這種形式是否因不同的口語背景而有所變化。本研究關心的另外一個問題是漢語閱讀障礙與兒童口語發展水平、一般知覺和動作技能的發展是否存在一定的聯繫。

本研究對於澄清閱讀障礙的語言特异性以及語言加工過程的模組化理論具有重要的理論意義，同時，有利於閱讀障礙兒童的鑒別、輔導和矯治。

二. 研究方法

1. 調查問卷

本研究根據漢語閱讀加工特點與我們對閱讀障礙的前期研究編制了關於漢語兒童閱讀困難特點的調查表，內容分為漢語閱讀和影響的因素。漢語閱讀具體包括讀、寫、理解和產生，其中每項都涉及字、詞、句子、段落等不同層次，在漢字水平又分為字形、字音和字義三部分。如，“經常混淆形狀相似的字”，“常常不理解字的意思”，“聽寫中常常有同音字混淆現象”。影響因素專案具體涉及視知覺，口語理解和表達，動作技能。如，“常常聽不懂別人的話”，“閱讀過程中常常感到文字在閃爍和跳躍”，“在跳繩和站平衡木中很難保持平衡”。整個調查表由40個調查專案組成。要求被調查者在一個五點量表上評定所調查現象在閱讀困難兒童在家中做功課時，特別是中文科時，出現讀寫困難的頻率，“從未出現”評定“1”，“經常出現”評定為“5”。

2. 調查物件

我們選擇閱讀水平低於同年齡閱讀水平2個標準差，在瑞文智力測驗上成績中等以上的兒童作為本研究的物件。調查問卷由每個兒童的家長填寫，要求他們根據兒童的情況如實對每個專案在兒童身上出現的頻率做出選擇。調查分兩組進行，一組在北京的閱讀培訓中心¹完成。另一組在香港理工大學護理學院之特殊學習障礙中心完成。在調查過程中，北京及香港各派出100份問卷，北京及香港都收回低年級(1至3年級)，及高年級(4至6年級)每級各10份問卷。香港低年級的平均年齡為8.2歲，閱讀年齡為6.1歲。北京低年級的平均年齡為8.1歲，閱讀年齡為6.0歲。香港高年級的平均年齡為11.2歲，閱讀年齡為9歲。北京高年級的平均年齡為11.4歲，閱讀年齡為9.1歲。主試對每個家長進行個別指導，因此，調查結果不會受到家長閱讀水平的影響。

本研究主要邀請家長參與的主要原因是北京及香港參與閱讀障礙訓練中心的兒童皆來自不同小學，在此階段期間，邀請不同學校老師參與皆有實際困難。一般家長乃最瞭解兒童讀寫困難的人士，故此研究只限於家長參與。

3. 資料分析

我們分別對北京和香港的資料在閱讀專案上按照每個專案困難的程度進行了排序，並對其所屬的領域進行了歸類，得出被評定為出現頻率較高的前10個專案，這些專案表明了閱讀困難兒童在閱讀學習中最常出現的問題。然後，我們把被試按照所處年級分為高年級和低年級，對北京和香港高、低年級之間讀寫障礙的差異進行了比較。我們還通過相關分析對不同閱讀過程之間的關係進行了探討；最後，我們考察了閱讀障礙與一般口語、知覺和動作技能之間的關係。

三. 結果

1. 專案排序結果

表1 家長問卷中香港與北京閱讀困難兒童的有關讀寫困難專案排序

北京			
排序	內容	平均評定分數	涉及領域
1	喜歡聽別人給他讀故事，不喜歡自己去讀。	4.22	段落閱讀
2	把老師的口頭指令寫下來存在困難。	4.21	寫字
3	讀一篇文章需要的時間比別人長。	4.19	段落閱讀
4	書面表達自己的意思非常困難。	4.13	段落產生
5	朗讀課文時總是丟字、改字、串列。	4.09	讀字
6	經常混淆形狀相似的字。	4.03	字形
7	經常忘記一個學過的字應該怎樣寫。	3.94	寫字
8	不會寫作文。	3.91	段落產生
9	聽寫時總做的不好。	3.88	寫字
10	不喜歡閱讀。	3.84	段落閱讀
香港			
題號	內容	平均評定分數	涉及領域
1	不會寫作文。	3.91	段落產生
2	喜歡聽別人給他讀故事，不喜歡自己去讀。	3.91	段落閱讀
3	經常混淆形狀相似的字。	3.80	字形
4	書面表達自己的意思非常困難。	3.77	段落產生
5	經常忘記一個學過的字應該怎樣寫。	3.73	寫字
6	讀一篇文章需要的時間比別人長。	3.70	段落閱讀
7	把老師的口頭指令寫下來存在困難。	3.70	寫字
8	常常不理解字在詞中的意思。	3.66	字義
9	不理解詞在句子中的意思。	3.65	詞義
10	聽寫時總做的不好。	3.64	寫字

比較家長問卷，可以發現：香港和北京閱讀困難兒童都在寫字、段落產生方面有較多的困難，字形和讀字上有相似的困難，不同的是，北京兒童似乎在閱讀上有更多的困難，而香港兒童在字義、詞義上有更多的困難。

¹北京市中小學心理諮詢培訓中心，由北京師範大學心理學系劉翔平教授創立和主持。

2. 北京與香港被試中不同年級之間的比較

表2 香港和北京的高年級和低年級兒童讀寫困難比較

香港低年級 (1至3年級)			香港高年級(4至6年級)		
平均年齡 8.2歲，閱讀年齡為 6.1歲			平均年齡 11.2歲，閱讀年齡為 9歲		
名稱	平均數	涉及領域	名稱	平均數	涉及領域
書面語理解	4.00	段落	段落產生	3.91	段落
讀字	3.95	字	字形	3.81	字
詞義	3.89	詞	寫字	3.68	字
段落閱讀	3.81	段落	段落閱讀	3.55	段落
字形	3.75	字	詞義	3.55	詞
寫字	3.72	字	字義	3.52	字
字義	3.67	字	讀字	3.37	字
段落產生	3.38	段落	書面語理解	3.13	段落

北京低年級			北京高年級		
平均年齡為 8.1歲，閱讀年齡為 6.0歲			平均年齡為 11.4歲，閱讀年齡為 9.1歲		
名稱	平均數	涉及領域	名稱	平均數	涉及領域
字形	4.76	字	段落產生	4.08	段落
段落閱讀	4.67	段落	字形	3.82	字
寫字	4.38	字	段落閱讀	3.75	字
段落產生	4.33	段落	寫字	3.55	段落
詞義	3.83	詞	詞義	3.24	詞
字義	3.83	字	字義	3.04	字
書面語理解	3.67	段落	讀字	2.80	字
讀字	3.50	字	書面語理解	2.67	段落

香港、北京低年級段落閱讀相對段落產生更困難，高年級則相反；香港低年級兒童書面語言理解是困難程度最高的一項，可能與他們的口語和書面語的不一致，造成初始閱讀的特別困難。對於香港高年級、北京高年級和低年級則不存在此問題。與北京兒童不同，讀字在香港低年級兒童中也是困難程度較高的一項。

本研究發現困難兒童在段落閱讀、段落產生方面有較多的問題。而以前的研究表明，閱讀困難主要發生在字水平。因此，我們分別計算了北京和香港被試各種變數之間的相關。

3. 各種變數之間的相關矩陣

表3 各種變數之間的相關矩陣

北京	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
段落閱讀									
字形	0.68**								
段落產生	0.30	0.43*							
寫字	0.56**	0.70**	0.39*						
詞義	0.43*	0.46**	0.74**	0.55**					
字義	0.54**	0.53**	0.56**	0.66**	0.87**				
讀字	0.50**	0.57**	0.29	0.54**	0.45**	0.49**			
語音	0.42*	0.51**	0.28	0.65**	0.40*	0.51**	0.56**		
書面語理解	0.39*	0.12	0.33	0.16	0.60**	0.66**	0.29	0.20	

香港	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
段落閱讀									
字形	0.36*								
段落產生	0.42**	0.28							
寫字	0.49**	0.60**	0.64**						
詞義	0.44**	0.49**	0.49**	0.42**					
字義	0.67**	0.51**	0.32*	0.57**	0.55**				
讀字	0.47**	0.57**	0.46**	0.65**	0.58**	0.69**			
語音	-0.03	0.19	0.15	0.16	0.10	0.17	0.12		
書面語理解	0.26	0.28	0.26	0.32	0.49**	0.39**	0.56**	0.21	

從上述相關矩陣看，段落閱讀與段落產生均與單字的識別水平存在顯著相關，因此，本研究結果與他人的研究結果並不矛盾。

相關矩陣還顯示，語音在北京兒童中與其他閱讀過程較多相關，而在香港兒童中語音與其他閱讀過程相關均不顯著。本研究調查問卷中的語音主要指聲調資訊的知覺和中文拼音的使用，香港沒有拼音系統。這可能是導致兩地兒童語音模式不同的原因。

4. 閱讀障礙與口語、知覺和動作技能之間的關係

表4 閱讀障礙與口語、知覺和動作技能之間的相關

北京	動作	知覺	口語
理解	0.34	0.58**	0.50**
產生	0.29	0.65**	0.54**
音	0.49**	0.63**	0.40*
形	0.31	0.59**	0.43*
義	0.35	0.45**	0.72**

香港	動作	知覺	口語
理解	0.35*	0.40**	0.35*
產生	0.46**	0.38**	0.32*
音	0.19	0.10	0.22
形	0.33*	0.28	0.06
義	0.44**	0.30*	0.49**

從上述相關分析可見，閱讀障礙與一般的知覺、動作技能、口語水平及說話很晚有顯著相關，但有不同口語背景的北京和香港的相關有所不同。香港兒童的讀寫困難與動作技能有較顯著的關係，亦即是香港讀寫困難兒童有較多在動作協調方面的問題。

四. 討論

1. 中文閱讀障礙的特點

從專案排序看出中文閱讀障礙表現在讀寫兩個方面。具體表現為書面表達自己的意思非常困難，缺少閱讀動機，閱讀速度慢，混淆字形相似的漢字。進一步分析發現兒童在段落閱讀和段落產生上的成績與漢字音、形、義的加工水平高度相關，說明中文閱讀障礙主要發生在漢字水平，這與英語研究和漢語閱讀障礙的早期研究結果一致。英語研究表明閱讀障礙發生在單個辭彙的解碼過程，漢語研究同樣發現兒童閱讀障礙主要發生在單字加工過程，本研究證明，兒童在段落閱讀和段落產生上的困難與漢字音、形、義的加工水平有關，漢字形、音、義之間的聯結強度弱，相互之間的擴散與激動不十分迅速有效，使兒童在閱讀過程中耗費大量資源在單字語音解碼和語義通達上，致使不能流暢地閱讀和意義整合。另外，由于中文存在大量的同音語素，字形輸出過程常常出現同音錯誤。因此，中文閱讀障礙主要表現為單字形、音、義的聯結弱與相互激動效能低。

中文閱讀障礙的形式隨年齡有發展變化趨勢，在普通話兒童中低年級主要表現為字形混淆，段落閱讀和寫字上的困難，粵語兒童在低年級不僅要經歷與普通話兒童同樣的困難，由于口語與書面語不一致，他們還要在書面語的理解上進行掙扎。隨著年級的升高，到四年級以後，學業要求不斷提高，書寫輸出（如，作文）成為兒童課業中的主要任務，段落產生取代閱讀成為中高年級兒童閱讀障礙的最重要表現，如，不會寫作文。從相關分析可見，兒童段落產生上的困難主要與字義、詞義和寫字有關，段落產生是一個從意義加工到字形輸出的過程，主要受語義理解以及書寫輸出技能的制約。段落產生成為中高年級兒童讀寫障礙的最大困難，不意味著他們在閱讀和字詞識別上的困難不存在了。他們的字詞識別水平以及閱讀流暢性依然嚴重落後于同年齡的閱讀正常兒童（孟祥芝，2000）。

2. 口語背景的影響－普通話與粵語中閱讀障礙的模式有差異嗎？

本研究的另一個主要目的是考察不同口語背景是否會影響中文閱讀障礙的表現。仔細分析北京與香港的資料模式，從專案排序可見，香港閱讀障礙兒童常常表現出不理解字在詞中的意思和不理解詞在句子中的意思。北京的閱讀障礙兒童在這兩項上沒有顯示出困難。把被試按照年齡分開後發現，香港低年級兒童的書面語理解非常困難，香港高年級兒童和北京兒童在書面語理解上困難程度相對較輕。這些結果可能與香港兒童的口語與書面語不一致導致口語不能為書面語閱讀提供意義的支援有關。到了高年級後，隨著書面辭彙的增長，語義理解上的困難漸漸減弱，取而代之的是段落產生上的困難。北

京低年級兒童的主要困難表現在字形分辨、段落閱讀上，隨著年級的升高，段落產生成為最困難的讀寫障礙形式。從上述分析可見，口語背景的影響主要發生在初始閱讀階段，表現為香港低年級兒童由于口語和書面語不一致導致書面語的理解存在極大的困難。

相關分析顯示，口語與理解、產生以及中文意義加工存在顯著相關，說明口語發展水平與書面閱讀成績存在內在的聯繫，在普通話中，由于口語與書面語音、義均一致，所以普通話兒童口語與書面語閱讀之間的關聯強度更大，如，口語與語義之間的相關達到.72。口語的影響還表現為在普通話中，口語與語音之間相關顯著，而在粵語中，口語與語音之間的相關不顯著。

本研究證明，兒童早期口語背景不僅影響口語與書面閱讀之間的關係，而且影響閱讀障礙的表現形式。在普通話中，口語與書面語一致，所以表現出口語與書面閱讀、音、義加工較高的相關，在粵語中，口語與書面語不一致，所以與書面語詞彙語音加工之間相關不顯著。口語對閱讀障礙表現形式的影響主要發生在閱讀早期，在初讀者中，普通話兒童由于口語與書面語一致，早期口語辭彙為書面閱讀提供意義加工基礎，普通話初學者書面閱讀的最大任務是文字符號的語音解碼，只要語音通達過程順利完成，就與口語產生了聯繫，借助口語語義的支援讀者能順利通達語義，初學者閱讀過程中比較依賴語音解碼的激動得到閱讀發展研究的支援（宋華，張厚粲，舒華，1995）。所以初讀者的閱讀困難表現為字形辨認、識別和解碼過程。粵語兒童由于口語不能為書面閱讀提供支援，初讀者的閱讀困難表現是雙重的，不但要進行語音解碼，而且要理解書面語。

上述結果提示我們克服普通話兒童早期閱讀困難的方法是加強中文字形分辨和語音解碼的訓練，而對粵語兒童不但要進行語音解碼訓練，更為重要的是建立口語辭彙與書面語的聯繫，使書面語理解能得到口語的支援。

3. 閱讀障礙與知覺、動作之間的關係

本研究發現知覺、動作和口語在不同程度上與讀寫過程的不同方面相關。口語與閱讀之間的關係我們在上個問題中已經進行了討論，這裏主要討論閱讀與知覺、動作之間的關係。

閱讀過程與知覺和動作發展水平有顯著相關說明閱讀作一種高級認知過程受基本知覺加工過程的影響。閱讀過程包括視覺分析、語音分辨、語音輸出以及書寫輸出，這些都與基本加工過程有關。如前言所述，視覺巨細胞障礙、聽覺時間加工障礙和動作技能障礙都與閱讀障礙有關，這些研究對於探討閱讀障礙的產生發展機制乃至人類認知發展的神經基礎具有重要的理論意義。目

前，腦成像研究（Diamond，2000）證明，人類的認知功能和動作技能是相互聯繫的。如果認知和動作技能在大腦基礎上有緊密的聯繫，行為表現上相互影響就不難理解。早已證明，小腦在動作平衡和技能自動化中起重要作用，閱讀障礙者的一個突出行為特點是閱讀和書寫行為難以達到自動化水平，他們常常要進行控制加工，因此，表現出閱讀和書寫費力、緩慢。有研究證明，閱讀障礙者的小腦機能發育不完善（Nicolson & Fawcett，1999），並導致兒童動作協調障礙和書寫困難。

探討閱讀障礙的知覺和動作技能障礙對於閱讀障礙的早期鑒別有重要的實踐價值，如果兒童入學之前就能從視覺、聽覺和動作協調上找出閱讀障礙的徵兆，進行適時訓練，對於預防入學後產生閱讀障礙及一系列繼發性後果具有重要作用。

需要進一步探明的是閱讀障礙與知覺和動作技能之間的聯繫發生在什麼層次，知覺與動作是讀寫行為的認知基礎、讀寫行為與知覺、動作在神經基礎上相互聯繫，還是共同的神經機制決定了它們之間的密切相關？

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Proteges Of Singapore Mentoring Principals Choose Not To Abuse Their Authority In Working With Teachers

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For more than one and a half decades in the Singapore education system, a mentoring attachment was specially designed for aspiring school principals. During this eight-week mentoring attachment, the participants shadowed established principles selected by the Ministry of Education who were deemed role models. Many of the proteges of the mentoring principals are now practising principals themselves. A study was conducted to understand aspects of their school management practices. The findings suggest that the proteges practise selectively what they had learned from mentoring. They choose not to abuse their authority in working with teachers. In particular, they choose not to relate insensitively to their teachers. The proteges abandon what they perceive as inappropriate or wrong practices of school management. The results of this study challenge concerns that mentoring preserves conservative or traditional practices unthinkingly. Advocacy of formal assessment of the proteges by their mentors is also put into question.

新加坡校長督導制度下的門生－與老師共事時堅守職責

為了培育新校長，新加坡在15年前已特別創設了受訓校長駐校實習的督導制度。在為期8周的駐校實習的督導制度下，受訓校長接受由教育部遴選的優秀校長的督導。許多在優秀校長督導下的校長現在已能獨當一面，成為學校領導。對於這項督導制度研究顯示，受訓校長善于擇善而從，尤其是與老師共事時，他們是選擇不濫用職權，體恤老師的感受，摒棄不適當或錯誤的管理方法。研究成果挑戰了以下的看法：督導制度會導致受訓者盲目地維護保守與一成不變的管理方法；同時也對於督導校長評估受訓校長的方法提出質疑。

In Singapore, mentoring was the main feature of a development strategy for aspiring school principals attending the Diploma in Educational Administration (DEA) programme at the National Institute of Education (NIE) of the Nanyang Technological University. It had been developed as part of the DEA programme since 1984 (Chong, Low, & Walker, 1989; Marquardt & Engel, 1993; Walker, Chong, & Low, 1993). The DEA programme was a full-time one-academic-year programme for the preparation of selected vice-principals to be principals. It incorporated an eight-week school attachment, which was divided into two four-week periods. During the attachment, each participant protege was paired with a mentor principal. The DEA participant learned by "shadowing" the mentor, in the mentor's school. The Ministry of Education selected the mentors as worthy role

models for would-be school principals. Sustained over a period of more than one-and-a-half decades, the Singapore model is one of the longest existing formal mentoring schemes for aspiring principals in the world and the only established formal mentoring scheme in Singapore. As such, it offers a rich setting and background for research on mentoring, and research has been conducted to ascertain the impact of mentoring on the Singapore Education System in generating learning (Lim, 2001).

A prime focus of mentoring is learning, and the learning of school leaders has been in focus both locally and overseas. In the report *Towards Excellence In Schools* (1987), the Singapore study team concludes that the quality of the headmaster can make a major difference to the schools. This is consistent with what other writers have maintained

(Hallinger, 1992; Lane, 1992), that a school is as effective as its leadership. The centrality of the headteacher's role is a key finding in numerous research (Bolam, McMahon, Pocklington, & Weindling, 1993; Mortimore, Sammons, Stoll, Lewis, & Ecob, 1988; Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, & Ouston, 1979). Reports on school management also emphasise the highly significant role of the head teachers and their preparation for leadership roles (for example, *Developing School Management*, 1990). Meeting educational leadership challenges and creating opportunities to learn management require effort. It was as late as 1989, the National Policy Board for Educational Administration, a consortium of ten national educational administration-related organisations, recommended that the field of educational administration reconsiders and articulates its knowledge base. In the report *Improving The Preparation Of School Administrators*, the board had suggested "leadership and management processes and functions" and that these be "grounded in the problems of practice" (p. 19). Studies on mentoring (Daresh, 1995) tend to focus on implementation issues concerning the structure of mentoring programmes or programme evaluation, in which former participants of formally arranged mentoring programmes were asked to describe their perceptions of the benefits of the mentoring programmes. There is no previous study to explore management practices that were learned through mentoring but are rejected by the proteges. This paper presents part of a larger study to identify aspects of learning engaged by Singapore school principals while on the job. In this paper, the research question in focus is: What aspects of school management are perceived by the proteges to have been learned through mentoring but are not put into practice?

Methodology

In matching questions with methodology, this research used two methods of administering data collection, the self-administered questionnaire and interview. The interview, as another method of collecting data, helped to provide the intricate details that were difficult to convey in the questionnaire method. In this study, the face-to-face interviews with principals were conducted with the aid of an interview guide. Previous answers given by the principals in a

questionnaire helped to focus specific issues.

It is a requirement in Singapore to request for official approval from the Ministry of Education (MOE) prior to data collection from schools. The researcher informed the relevant Ministry of Education officials that the research was exploratory in nature. In the generation of new knowledge in such a specific area, the strategy of enlisting the maximum possible number of principals helps ensure more accurate findings and convincing conclusions. The Singapore Ministry of Education eventually granted the researcher permission to reach out to only a maximum of 70 percent (or 48 principals) of the population of 68 secondary school principals who were former DEA participants, citing practical constraints as the reason for imposing the restriction. Each of the 68 principals was assigned a number. The 48 numbers to be included in the random sample were picked according to those listed in a statistical table of random numbers. A random sample of 70 percent of the available population was thus invited to participate in this study. For this study, the response rate was 85 percent, that is, 41 out of the 48 principals (in the random sample) who were approached participated in this study.

In the questionnaire, the question under focus for this paper is: "List aspects of school management learned through mentoring which you did not put into actual school practice, during your past one year as a principal". The interview guide in this study established direction and scope in the interview. It helped ensure that questions were posed in the same order, probes were discreetly crafted and situated, and that all the questions were covered during each interview. After the entry phase of the interview, the researcher handed over a copy of the questionnaire that the principal had answered. There was reassurance of confidentiality and an attempt to allay any fear or uneasiness in the way their words would be perceived or put to use. The participant's response to the questionnaire was tied in with the follow-up interview: With reference to your answer to the question that [refer relevant contents], please share more about your experiences; What do you mean when you say [contents]? If there is something else you wish to add to your answer, please do so.

With the permission of the principals, audio tape recordings were made, to prevent loss or distortion of data. A small, unobtrusive tape recorder was introduced early in the meeting, prior to the commencement of the interview proper. The taped interviews were transcribed for analysis of raw data.

In the data analysis, the individual principals served as the units of analysis.. The set of data gathered from the questionnaire and the interview of each principal was thus considered as a unit of information for analysis. Content analysis was carried out on each unit of information. Data was read to comb for regularities and for emerging themes or patterns. The recurring themes were clustered into categories.

Limitations of the Study

This is a study to explore the perceptions of secondary school principals who had the opportunity to learn through mentoring. As “perceptions are the sole internal representations of external objects...”(Cohen, 1969, p. 6) and are subject to influence by... individual differences” (James and Jones, 1974, p. 1102), there is no attempt to conclude that the informants’ perceptions in this study can be generalised to all the principals in Singapore. This study is not an evaluation of the DEA programme.

Results

In this section, results will be presented. Discussion will focus on the frequency counts based on content analysis of the units of information and on the principals’ verbatim statements. Of the 41 principals who participated in this study, 85% (or 35 principals) provided answers pertaining to aspects of school management learned through mentoring which they did not put into practice. The number and percentage of principals indicating the aspects of school management learned but not put into practice are displayed in Table I below.

Table I: Principals by management practice learned through mentoring but not put into practice

Management Practice Learned Through Mentoring But Not Put Into Practice In Working With Teachers	Principals	
	Number	Percent
Practice of Abusing Authority:		
Relating Insensitively	9	26
Monitoring Insufficiently	5	14
Dictating Top down	4	11
Developing Staff Insufficiently	1	3
Projecting Unprofessional Image	1	3

Three categories emerged from the data. The first category comprised data indicative of the practice of abusing authority. This category consists of the following: relating insensitively, monitoring insufficiently, dictating top-down, developing staff insufficiently, and projecting unprofessional image. The second category comprised data indicative of the practice of organising for meeting specific needs. This category consists of the following: implementing extra programmes and organising context-specific administrative procedures. These were deemed inappropriate for practice in the proteges’ schools. The third category comprised data indicative of the mentors’ practice of leading by the use of religion to provide direction. This paper focuses on the first category, on aspects pertaining to what the principals chose not to practise with regard to the use of authority.

Of the 35 principals, 26% indicated the practice of relating insensitively. It was suggested that teachers could suffer from negative emotional stress and unhappiness caused by principals who ignore their plight. This is particularly so if the cause of the suffering is attributed to errors committed by the school management but the principals refuse to acknowledge. In getting things done through people, the principals preferred to respect and communicate well with their teachers. Through mentoring, the principals had perceived intimidation and aggravation in management practice. In sum, they chose not to practise relating insensitively. Two illustrative quotes are given below:

Sometimes you may find that it is very bothersome... so be it. In other words, you leave it like that but at the end of the day, whoever you deploy wrongly would suffer and cause stress and unhappiness to the teacher. Who knows, he may even resign from the service! ... we may make mistakes and we have to admit it and adjust, so that the teacher would not feel so stressed... Don't just say, "Leave it like that."

His way of enforcing discipline— the way he imposes discipline is very much through fear.. I'm not able to use because I'm not able to accept [such a practice]. I prefer to talk to people and accord [them] respect. I have no problems [relating to people like this here] and things are

done... When people make mistakes, I don't blow it out of proportion. When teachers feel bad, there is no need to add to the discomfort.

It was indicated by 14% of the principals that monitoring was insufficient. The physical visibility in monitoring was preferred instead of mere managing in the confines of the office. This management-by-walk-about could also be for information gathering purposes on matters pertaining to the school. It could also enhance sharpness in school focus. The following quotations exemplify the perceptions volunteered by the principals which reveal their disdain for inadequate physical monitoring:

Minimal walk-about around the school [by the mentor]. For me I normally always see her in the office. Very seldom have I seen her walking round the school... For me I think I need to do more walkabouts because I want to let the pupils see that I'm also monitoring them besides the teacher who is teaching in class...

It's not so much to monitor my teachers because I know my teachers are performing—they are really working. It's just to give this hand to the teachers—that at least I know what is happening. By walkabout, it also helps me to know the whole climate, where standards are falling in terms of cleanliness, in terms noise level, in terms of unnecessary movement.

There must be a sharper task focus and I feel that while I was there [in the mentoring school]... they [the students] could achieve more if we could be more task-centred. That's what I learned... And to be task-focused, you need to have very good control of things... if there is insufficient monitoring... then the organisation would not be as effective as it can be.

The practice of dictating top-down was indicated by 11% of the principals. They chose not to practise what they perceived as top-down approach. They preferred to refrain from the direct management of minor manners. They would

like to empower their subordinates, and be involved in serious matters when the occasion arises. The following illustrations were typical of such an approach in perception:

I would want to empower the teachers more, especially the HODs [Heads of Department]. I would want the structure like a pyramid where the principal is at the top to be overturned; with principal giving support from below, the wider space to be on top. The teachers, HODs— they are on the ground, it's very important that we listen to them. Of course, the principal has to be accountable to it, rather than the principal having a finger in every pie and dictating what to do. I would want to have that kind of management but during my attachment I saw that lacking.

Using school public address system to call up problem students or to scold them himself; Telephoning parents personally; Goes to pupils' home to call them back [to school]; Long dialogues with parents personally— [All these] I have not done. I always leave it to DM [Discipline Master] and come in for a while to reinforce message. I'd rather leave it to the discipline teacher. I think in that way I'm empowering the discipline teacher—I give him the power to punish and whatever punishment he gives, I stand by it... I think, if first round I go in, then they can't say, "Send you to principal"... So I'd rather let the teachers and discipline teachers do it so by the time they send to me, it's already very, very serious already, in that sense.

One of the principals indicated the practice of developing staff insufficiently. The principal questioned the mentor's insufficient emphasis on staff development in spite of knowledge of existing problems. The failure to take follow-up measures on teachers with teaching problems after the protege had helped to conduct a relevant workshop further aggravated the negative perception of practice. The following quote makes this point abundantly clear:

Negative learning— not paying enough attention

to staff development and to follow-up on teachers with teaching problems... She herself kept sharing all these problems with me! And she could not get these people [the teachers] to share, tell them to get together and so on and so on. So I got them [the teachers] to facilitate the workshop. She did not support the workshop... she herself was not in the room most of the time, in and out and in and out, and later... she didn't do follow-up either, so what was the point? So me, that is a real negative learning. I'm supposed to be mentored you know. A mentee watching you and you did not emphasise staff development as much as you would.

One principal highlighted the practice of projecting an unprofessional image. It was suggested that the mentor's image, as projected in the aspects of physical appearance and verbal communication, lacked a sense of professionalism. In her opinion, a principal must project a professional image:

Image of principal... your appearance, your dressing, the way you talk, must have that very clear-cut sense of professionalism.

Discussion

Concerns that mentoring may not be contributing to critical reflective leadership but passing on conservative role assumptions and practices (for example, Southworth, 1995) could not be substantiated as the findings of this study reveal otherwise. This is similarly so for Daresh (1995, p. 14), who had suggested future studies on mentoring to ascertain the use of "traditional apprentice models ('this is what I always do, so you should do the same') as ideals for the behaviour of experienced administrators who work with students of educational leadership". The data from this study reveal that the vast majority of proteges discern aspects that could not be put into practice in their contexts. They consider issues that are of concern. They choose not to practise selected aspects of the learning through mentoring in their own school contexts. The risk of developing too great a reliance on their learning from their mentors in their practice does not surface. There seems no expectation on the part of the principals that learning through mentoring would provide answers to all situations in practice. As such, there is no evidence of potential

harm to development as a result of over dependence on mentors.

The proteges of the Singapore mentoring principals, who are now principals themselves, choose not to abuse their authority in working with teachers. Relating insensitively, monitoring insufficiently, dictating top-down, developing staff insufficiently and projecting unprofessional image are aspects of what principals had learned from their mentors but not put into practice. These aspects are personnel-related. Bolam et al., (1995) provided information on new British headteachers' problems and the reportedly serious problems include those that were personnel-related, such as dealing with a weak member of the senior management team or incompetent staff. Creating or maintaining a good public image was seen as moderately or very serious problems. For each problem, between 30-45 percent reported "very helpful" discussion, with a further 40-55 percent stating "helpful" discussion. Proteges in the Singapore mentoring system appear not to have discussed with their mentors the management practices that are reflective of the mentors' abuse of authority. It could be that the mentors are involved in the formal assessment of the proteges' performance in the mentoring programme. This counters Bush and Coleman's (1995) advocacy of assessment of the proteges' professional practice in the mentoring process, and cautions the adoption of the Singapore mentoring model in this aspect.

Pocklington & Weindling (1996) also revealed that the most common topic that was covered in the mentoring process concerned members of staff. It characteristically comprises "what to do about members of staff— in some instances occupying positions of seniority— whose performance was unsatisfactory" (p. 178). The learning of human relationship skills emerged top with regard to what the proteges learn from their mentors (Low, 1995). Proteges realise the importance of building relationships and have developed learning relationships at work (Chong and Lim, 1998). Though the proteges in this study appear to be silent in their discussions with the mentors on the latter's abuse of authority, their non-practice of such an abuse speaks louder than their silence.

It is apt at this juncture to note some differing structures, to help illuminate the contexts under which mentoring prevailed in Singapore and the United Kingdom. In the latter, mentoring scheme for new heads in their first year of headship was developed under the recommendation of the School

Management Task Force that was set up in 1989. Participation in the in-service programme was voluntary. In contrast, headship mentoring in Singapore was a pre-service, full-time, obligatory practice since 1984. Since then, changes have taken place in both countries. In the United Kingdom, the mentoring dimension has been excluded in the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) for aspiring heads (Bush and Chew, 1999). Similarly, mentoring is not a feature in the Leaders in Education Programme (LEP), which has now replaced the former DEA programme since 2001. In this programme, the role of the principal in the attachment school is one of “investing” in the participant’s “development in innovation”, and the participants “should produce marketable results for the school” (LEP, 2001, p. 7). The LEP serves as “a learning programme for future principals” the new leaders of innovative learning organisations” (LEP, 2001, p. 1). There appears to be concerns about the benefits of mentoring for the future, that mentoring could be a potential hazard to innovative thrusts. The implicit assumption that mentoring could not contribute towards the development of future principals as new leaders of innovative learning organisations has yet to be rigorously challenged. This study shows that the proteges recognise that they have to examine what they had learned. In a way, they practise “organized abandonment” in management innovation, considering that “innovation means abandoning the old” (Drucker, 1992, pp. 339 & 340). New insights could be obtained from further research on proteges of the former DEA programmes who had ventured concretely into innovative leadership or managerial practices successfully. The scope of mentoring could be redefined to meet the anticipated needs of the future school principals in Singapore, and to move to new grounds in the research and practice of headship mentoring.

Conclusion and Implications

The mentoring programme for aspiring principals in Singapore has produced principals who choose not to practise selected aspects of school management learned through mentoring. They choose not to abuse their authority in the following aspects: relating insensitively, monitoring insufficiently, dictating top down, developing staff insufficiently, and projecting an unprofessional image. The

results of the study challenge concerns that mentoring serves to preserve conservative or traditional practices unthinkingly. The results also dispute researchers who advocate the inclusion of formal assessment in the mentoring process. The Singapore mentoring system has incorporated formal assessment of the proteges professional practice in the mentoring and this assessment could have hindered dialogue between the mentoring pairs on matters pertaining to the proteges’ perception of the abuse of authority by the mentors. The role of the mentors in the formal assessment in the proteges’ performance could be reviewed. As such, this study could provide a basis for the management and human resource personnel involved in the training and development programmes to de-emphasise assessment in mentoring. In sum, mentoring can be used as a key managerial development strategy for aspiring school principals, as fears arising from concerns about non-reflective regurgitation are not substantiated in this study. The principals have abandoned what they perceive as inappropriate or wrong practices in the schools they were attached to as proteges.

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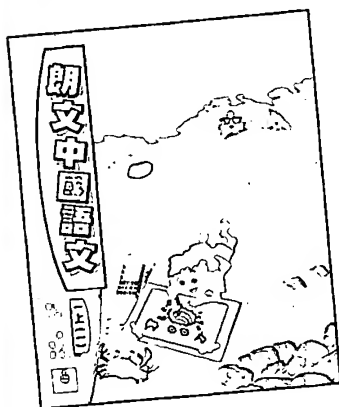
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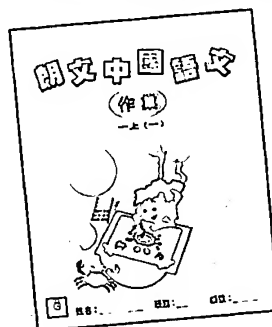
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香港教師會的週年學術活動有：(一)教育研究大會，如一九九七年舉辦的「優質教育新挑戰：愉快的教與學」研究大會、一九九八年舉辦的「質素保證視學如何提升學校教育質素？」研究大會、一九九九年舉辦的「邁向2000年教師何去何從？」研究大會及二零零零年舉辦的「廿一世紀教師的切身問題」研討會等；(二)本港教育專題研討會，如「幼稚園、小學與中學的銜接研討會」、「特殊學校音樂教育研討會」、「如何為成績稍遜的學生提供有效學習研討會」、「教室管理的科學與藝術」及「母語教學問題及解決方法研討會」等；(三)定期出版教育曙光。近年舉辦的國際學術活動，則有一九九二及一九九九年主辦的海峽兩岸四地學術研究會及一九九八年主辦第三屆東北亞教育論壇。

教育曙光

教育曙光是一份香港教師會出版的教育學報，每期均請專家評審；每年五月及十一月出版，分發全港幼稚園、小學、中學及大專院校。

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歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿。詳情請參閱每期刊登的徵稿啟示。

教育曙光歡迎各教育機構及個人訂閱。請將訂閱表格及費用寄來香港教師會。

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The Hong Kong Teachers' Association (HKTA), founded in 1934, aims at developing close cooperation among educational workers, promoting the professional status of teachers, protecting the rights and improving the welfare of its members and strengthening international understanding of teacher organizations. Apart from being a Hong Kong-based educational body, HKTA is also a member of international organizations such as Education International and the International Reading Association.

The academic activities of HKTA include: (1) the annual education conference, such as the 1997 Conference on New Challenge of Quality Education: Pleasurable and Effective Teaching and Learning, the 1998 Conference on Promoting Quality Assurance Inspection and School Quality, the 1999 Conference on Towards 2000 the Right Way for Teachers and the 2000 Conference on Concerned matters of Teachers of 21st Century; (2) Seminars on local educational issues such as: "Continuity in Preschool, Primary and Secondary Education", "Music Education in Special Schools", "Effective Learning for the Less Able Students", "The Science and Arts of Classroom Management" and "Seminars on the Problems and Solutions of Mother-Tongue Teaching"; and (3) the publication of New Horizons in Education. In 1992 and 1999 HKTA is proud to be the chief organizer and the host for The First and Fifth Educational Conference of China, Taiwan, Hong Kong & Macau and hosted the 1998 Third North-East Asia Teachers' Forum.

NEW HORIZONS IN EDUCATION

New Horizons is a refereed journal of education published in May and November by HKTA. It is distributed to kindergartens, primary and secondary schools and tertiary institutions in Hong Kong.

New Horizons is intended as a forum to stimulate and enhance professional development and practice in education. We publish papers that speak directly to practical school and classroom concerns as well as papers that are based on systematic inquiries into educational issues and practices, including those related to the announced theme(s). We also publish presentations of new developments and innovative ideas tried out in schools, in Hong Kong or elsewhere.

Submissions are invited from teachers, school administrators, persons with pastoral duties, educationists and researchers. General information about submissions can be found in the Call for Papers in each issue of the journal.

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第四十六期，二零零二年十一月

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今期共收到廿二篇來稿，經過雙重不記名的評審後，能被接納而又趕及在付印前修正寄回的稿件只有十篇。來稿的評審需時平均約為六個星期，最長的要三個月，最快的三天便可知道結果，主要視乎個別評審者的效率及合作程度，編者能做的只是多和評審者溝通及催促。

讀者可在美國教育研究資源中心的光碟系統及在萬維網中(網址如下：<http://www.fed.cuhk.edu.hk/ceric/nh/> 或 www.hktd.edu.gov.hk) 閱讀本刊各期文章的摘要。讀者亦可訂閱本刊，詳見本期的最後一頁。

From the Editor

A total of 22 manuscripts were received for consideration in this issue. Ten could pass the double blind review process and were revised in time. The average reviewing period was about 6 weeks in this issue, actual time ranging from 3 day to 13 weeks, depending on individual reviewer's cooperation.

Readers can access the abstracts of our past issues (starting from the 1967 issue) through the international data base ERIC or the internet website address: (<http://www.fed.cuhk.edu.hk/ceric/nh/> or www.hktd.edu.gov.hk). Readers can also subscribe for our journal. Details can be found in the last page of this issue.

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徵 稿

教育曙光整年徵稿，由2000年開始每年刊登兩期。歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿，發表他們從研究和實踐所得的新思維和新啟示。如及時接納（及修訂），將於每年五月或十一月刊登。

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Pure Charisma: An Application of Leadership in Australian Anglican Church Schools

Grant M. BELL

St. Michael's Vacluse, Sydney

This paper is an assessment of Charismatic leadership in the Christian-Judaic tradition in the light of Weberian thought. It is a summary of doctoral research studies by the author into the theory and practice of spiritual leaders in Anglican Schools in the Diocese of Sydney. Fifteen Heads of schools in the Diocese were surveyed and interviewed concerning their attitude and practice of spiritual (charismatic) leadership. Concurrently with the survey and interview, a Diocesan Research Committee comprising of some of the leading educationists associated with Australian Anglican schools was formed to study the problem. From this triangulation of findings, conclusions and recommendations were made in reference to the assessment and future direction of Educational leadership in the Anglican schools system.

澳洲聖公會學校魅力型領導之研究及應用

本文以韋伯的理論，審查在基督教猶太教影響下的魅力型領導。這是作者博士論文中，有關於澳洲悉尼聖公會教區學校屬靈領導的研究。作者訪問教區內十五位校長，請他們填答有關屬靈魅力領導的問卷；同時又組成一個以澳洲聖公會教區內，在教育方面的領導人為成員的研究小組探討這問題。將上述不同研究取向的結果綜合後，作出對聖公會學校系統教育領導的評估，並建議未來的路向。

1. Introduction

The focus in this article is on the practical application of charismatic leadership in Anglican Schools, in the Diocese of Sydney, Australia. Max Weber, the great German sociologist, in the first part of this Century, cites the prophets of the Old Testament as ones that demonstrated "pure charisma" in the spiritual leadership of God's people (Weber, 1952, p.246f & 1955, ch. 9-10). The fulfillment of this charisma, in biblical theology, was ultimately understood in the Incarnation of Christ. The outcome is a personal gift of God's favor that can only be fully appreciated through subjective experience and, in turn, this gives the historical reality of the "Christ event" some meaning.

Weber, in his description of Charismatic authority, defines

this "charisma" in leadership in strong spiritual terms. There is an a priori understanding of charismatic leadership by the led that their leader possess a spiritual right or mandate to lead. This is recognized and accepted by the followers who believe their community is based on these spiritual foundations personified in their leader (Weber, 1952, p.246f). The history of the survival of the Christian Church, as imperfect as it has been at times, nevertheless bears witness to the uniqueness of its belief in a community being driven by the power of God. This community is identified as "different" because of the way it communicates its values and beliefs. Above all the role of the charismatic or spiritual leadership is to communicate these values and beliefs from one generation to another (Vardy, 1997 & Beavis, 1998).

Church schools are an essential arm of the mission of the Church and have been considered the seedbed in the

development of our next generation. However the young people who attend these institutions are one of the most neglected groups, particularly in regard to their spiritual and moral development. Dr Michael Carr-Greg, Head of Education and Training Unit, Royal Melbourne Children's Hospital, in a presentation to staff at The King's School in 1997, said,

"Our generation are failing our young people as we neglect any sense of understanding, belonging, meaning or purpose. Our young people have inherited nothing to believe in or live for, save self interest."

He argued that if our generation is genuinely interested in the health and well being of our youth we need to address above all the spiritual void that has arisen in this generation. This paper is an assessment of the spiritual leadership of school communities in the Anglican Diocese of Sydney.

2. The Leadership Problem

The Reverend Ian Mears, Chair of the Anglican Schools' Corporation at the 1996 Sydney Synod, said, "Our Anglican Church schools need better leaders". The writer's doctoral research concluded that most Churches and Church schools have suffered the effects of poor leadership at some point. This has a far more negative impact on the spiritual health of those they are meant to serve - possibly greater than any other influence. Dr Carr-Greg, said in 1995,

"If the psychological well-being of the younger generation is a proper measure of the health of a civilization, Australia is in grave danger. 23% of the Australian population is made up of young people aged between 10 and 24, and they remain the only age group in Australia, whose health status has not improved over the past three decades, mostly because of accidents, suicides, substance abuse and other compromising behaviors. Australia has failed to transmit a sense of belonging, meaning or purpose to many young people, so that for many, they have nothing to believe in or live for, save self interest."

In 1997 he continued to argue, as he repeated at The King's School staff seminar, that anyone interested in the health and well being of our future generation must address the spiritual void that has arisen in many young people's lives. He promoted strong spiritual leadership in Church schools as

being critical and central for the future health of our nation (Carr-Greg, 1995 & 1997). The problem related to the effectiveness of spiritual leadership in Church Schools is a symptom of a greater problem in the Church generally.

The concern of this paper is with the current practice of leadership in Anglican Church Schools and whether or not it reflects that of mainly secular models. Robert Brindley details an excellent example of the current practice of leadership in Church schools in his recent work, *Thy Rod and Thy Staff*. The school studied was typical of elite Anglican schools. This study portrayed an institution whose main role is to emulate the part played by the Public Schools of Britain in creating, through education, a privileged and select body of men (it was a boys' school) whose destiny would be that of leaders rather than followers. The early educators and religious founders in Britain were firmly of the opinion that greater social and political change could be brought about more effectively and quickly with a headmaster of the "Arnold of Rugby" mould. Education and religion went hand in hand in this society and were considered the bastions of respectability, crucial to the maintenance of an ordered and essentially British Christian culture (Brindley, 1996, p.6-8).

The first headmasters in Anglican schools in Australia were all in the orders of Priests of the Church of England and appointed by School Councils whose members were also predominantly connected with the Church, the chairman being the local Bishop. The Headmaster's role resembled that evoked by Arnold at Rugby- the paternalistic leader with strong religious credentials who nurtures and cares for the moral fiber of his boys. The ethos of these "great English Public Schools" was deliberately transported to Australia, and the Headmasters with them, to ensure their perpetuation. The Headmaster was and remains to a certain degree today, the Rector of a large parish, the educational and religious mentor and guardian of the whole school family. These Schools are hierarchical, authoritative structures, with a figurehead represented by the Headmaster who, although not sovereign in the Machiavellian or Hobbesian sense, is patriarchal and empowered to act and control the community (Hobbs, 1968 & Machiavelli, 1513). This leadership and exercise of power is legitimized through the appointment and sanction of the School Council and is conditional and not absolute. The conditions of leadership rest on the acceptance of the school community to respect this authority. Brindley's arguments

are helpful and accurate to a point where he comments on the secular autocratic leadership of the headmaster. Yet, at the same time to assume it possible simply to transport the English Public School traditions in their entirety into the Australian context is tenuous. An understanding of the Church school's evolution in this country will readily indicate otherwise (Brindley, 1996, p.6-8).

In Sydney there has been growing interest in the spiritual health of young people in Anglican Schools. In 1996 there was an argument raised by a number of members of the Sydney Anglican Synod that often Church schools have been allowed to function as mainly secular institutions with simply a veneer of Christian spirituality. This situation has become prominent in recent years as for many reasons clergy have become less involved in the operation of Church schools at a leadership level. At the same time these schools by Church Ordinance give supreme authority to the Headmaster.

Today's Church schools are engaging a "postmodern" world, a word used loosely to describe our age. It was the German philosopher, Hegel, writing in the first quarter of the nineteenth century, who first probed with insistent profundity the nature of modernity. Probably human beings have always operated with the distinction between the recent and the long ago (Harnacks, 1976, p.208-227). Max Weber identified the essence of modernity in the destruction of tradition and its replacement by "rationalization". According to Lambcrt and Mitchell in their critique of postmodernity, there is a widespread conviction today that we are living through changes of similar depth and importance described by Hegel and Weber. The conviction is that modernity is ending and that we are entering "postmodernity" (Walsh, 1997, p.8-24). The essential importance of postmodernity to this thesis is its impact on leadership in Anglican schools. Clearly new times call for new and fresh reflections on Christian schooling. There is a danger that if Christian schooling is not rethought and reconfigured in this new age, it will die. Leadership that is shaped by an allegiance to God in Jesus Christ, by the Bible, by the formation of the Christian tradition, is as necessary as ever. However, if it is to be relevant to these new times, it must be rethought and reconfigured (Beavis, 1998 & Walsh, 1997). In 1996 many members of the Sydney Synod argued that the progressive marginalization or compartmentalization

in Church schools of the spiritual and Christian application marked the beginning of the end, if it were allowed to continue. Strong, unambiguous, spiritual leadership was seen as essential for the existence and success of Church schools (Luhmann, 1995, p.214 & Bell, 2001, p.258f).

The following paragraphs are a summary of a doctoral research component assessing spiritual leadership in Anglican Church schools in the Sydney Diocese. The purpose of this research was to gain an indication of the current state of leadership in the schools that participated in the research by way of a "triangulation of findings" which consisted of a survey and interview of Heads of a number of participating schools. To further consolidate the research, evidence was also gathered from The Anglican Schools Corporation, Sydney and The Synod Committee on the Recruitment, Training and Development of educators in Anglican Schools (Bell, 2001, p.250f).

3. General Methodological Approach to Research

There are three key factors that influenced and to some degree determined the design of this study:

- The purpose of the study;
- The nature of what is being examined;
- The determining factors for the methodology (Seltiz, 1976).

The triangulation approach to this research project (interviews, questionnaire and research committee) produces an important foundational outcome in the assessment of spiritual or charismatic leadership in Anglican Schools in the Diocese of Sydney. The Triangulation of Findings was drawn from a twenty-eight questions survey, an interview of fifteen Heads of Anglican Schools in the Diocese of Sydney. The third component was a report on the findings of a Synod Research committee that investigated the Recruitment, Training and Development of Educators in Anglican Schools in the Diocese of Sydney (Synod Report, 1996 & Bell, 2001, p.278).

4. Findings

Analysis of Survey - Agreement of Responses to Theoretical Framework of Research

Fifteen Heads of various Anglican Schools participated in this research project. The survey consisted of 28 questions relating directly to the leadership of the Heads. The Heads were then interviewed for the purpose of clarification and or expanding on their written answers. There were a number of issues that consistently emerged from the survey and interviews that were consonant with the theoretical framework of the research:

All participants demonstrated a genuine Christian concern about their schools, and 11 of the 15 were able to articulate a clear personal faith in their responses.

All participants believed that in some degree or other their leadership involved the “spiritual” as well as the “temporal” concerns of the school. The spiritual was interpreted as “Christian” due to all the schools’ Anglican affiliation.

All agreed that spiritual leadership, broadly understood in the Christian tradition, was foundational, or at least a major priority in the life of their schools.

All demonstrated a willingness to apply the Christian vision or mission of their schools in a relevant way.

All agreed that the Spiritual should influence the curriculum. Half of the participants were determinedly working towards developing a Christian philosophy of education across the curriculum.

All the schools represented had strong, unambiguous Christian visions or mission statements.

Thirteen of the 15 Heads were not satisfied with the spiritual life of the school and were looking for strategies of improvement.

The same 13 Heads had a good working knowledge of the detail of the strategies employed to improve the spiritual life of their schools. They highlighted the need for committed Christian staff as a necessary, if not vital ingredient in improving the spiritual climate of the school.

All of the participants believed that every area of school life, in a church school, should be influenced by spiritual concerns.”(Bell, 2001, p.294f).

Notwithstanding these several areas of agreement, inconsistencies in responses were often detected. These are recorded in the following section.

Disagreement in the Survey Responses to the Theoretical Framework

Generally, there were a number of inconsistencies in the answers to the questionnaire and interviews to the theoretical framework. The survey questionnaire being designed to move from statements in “principle” to “particular” answers required a spiritual maturity and a developed theological worldview that was consistent with the theoretic framework. The inconsistencies occurred when the early answers in the questionnaire (1 to 14) were assessed alongside the answers to the questions in the latter part of the questionnaire (15 to 28). The following is a summary of the inconsistencies:

All participants had difficulties in being consistent when attempting to flesh out the principles and applying these in a logical and consistent way, often they became confused and even contradictory.

In Question One Heads was asked to define “spiritual leadership”. This resulted in a variety of answers. Four Heads attempted to answer the question from a biblical position that reflects the essence of charismatic leadership. Each highlighted the ideas of service and the ability to guide, encourage and persuade others to follow Christ. The four Heads mentioned the idea of spiritual gifts to lead and the overall personal commitment to Christ. Three of these Heads, however, used the word “Christian” in the sense of being able to “inspire” or to lead by example. The inconsistency with the theoretical framework came with the other 11 Heads. They defined it in terms of a particular function within their own context, for example, leading chapel services, Christian groups, and other aspects of Christian activity in the School. They did not speak about the personal and spiritual attributes of the spiritual leader (values and beliefs).

Overall, the responses to all the questions by the same 11 Heads generally lacked an informed theological insight or correlation with the analysis found in the theoretical framework.” (Bell, 2001, p.296)

The writer gained the impression that a number of the Heads considered they were not equipped theologically for the task of spiritual leadership. The interviews with seven of

the participants revealed that they were defensive and obviously felt threatened by the qualifications, experience and the role of the Chaplain. Three mentioned reason for this - it was their lack of formal training in theology. All the schools had fulltime Chaplains. All but one had Chaplains who were ordained to the priesthood. Only one school had a layperson as Chaplain. This person was theologically trained, with academic credentials to university standard that would gain him/her admission into "Holy Orders" in any diocese in Australia (Bell, 2001, p.383ff).

None of the Heads had formal theological training. Only five had experience in Christian leadership outside their current position. This was inconsistent with the argument in the theoretical framework (Bell, 2001, p.395).

Survey and Interview Summary

Both survey questionnaire and interview process were designed to start with general questions about "spiritual leadership" in Anglican Schools and then move to more specific questions. This strategy was designed first, to challenge the participants to examine their current thinking on and the function of spiritual leadership in their schools and, second, to assess the overall relevance and applicability to charismatic leadership as described in the theoretical framework. Generally the respondents operated from a classical Weberian model of bureaucratic or legal form of authority in attempting to interpret charismatic or spiritual leadership (Weber, 1948, p.18-54). There was little evidence that the respondents were able to think consistently from a theological perspective or demonstrate a developed theological worldview. The absence of any formal theological training and the limited spiritual experience outside the school environment were thought to be contributing factors to this assessment. From a Weberian description of charismatic this raised theoretical problems because formal education is not necessarily part of the criteria for a charismatic leader. According to Weber, the charismatic leader functions on personal, spiritual qualities that are claimed to be God-given. Neither the prophets, Jesus or Paul claimed anything because of their formal education (Bendix, 1962, p.381f & Weber, 1947, p.212). However, Holmberg and Theissen have taken their investigations beyond Weber, as arguing that Jesus ushered in the 'routinizing' of charismatic leadership. This was a deliberate strategy by Jesus and Paul to ensure a stable

permanent society. Holmberg says,

"The institutional form of charisma is, from the beginning, an intended and much longed-for manifestation of the authenticity of the charisma itself. Charisma is not merely the victim of routinization but actively seeks institutional manifestation, albeit a radically new one in contrast to existing patterns of authority." (Holmberg, 1978, p.150)

There are certain obligations on the charismatic leader, as in the case of Timothy, to be trained and equipped to lead, which involved a broad range of leadership skills (2 Tim 3.1-16). The dominant organizational principle of the Church is a charismatic legitimization. This does not mean that there is no bureaucracy or tradition in Christianity. But, as Theissen argues: "The center of Christianity is not the law, but a personal relationship of faith in Jesus Christ." (Theissen, 1992, p.26)

Leadership in the Church ideally should reflect a leadership that in principle is routinized charismatic leadership with bureaucratic and traditional processes working to serve the greater spiritual goals of the Church. Church schools are part of the mission of the Church and the primary reason for these schools' existence is to offer an education that is founded on a Christian philosophy. Therefore, this requires astute, informed and well-qualified spiritual leadership. Any shortcomings in this area in no way could be considered the fault of the Heads that were surveyed. The questionnaire clearly highlighted that the participants were men and women who were highly motivated, enthusiastic people who had a deep concern for the obligation to address the Christian mission in their respective schools. The difficulty that the questionnaire highlighted was that most of the participants did not have the necessary qualifications, in experience or training to do this effectively (Bell, 2001, p.383f).

Diocesan Research Committee

The application of the survey questionnaire and a series of interviews constituted the first two methodological phases of this study. Data from such were presented and compared. The third phase of data gathering were taken from the findings of the Sydney Diocesan Committee into school leadership. Consideration of this material also contributes to a further stage of the triangulation process.

The purpose of this section is to report on the third phase

of the research component. The survey questionnaire and the interview process comprised the first two phases. The third phase was the assessment of leadership by the Sydney Diocesan Committee. After certain representations in relation to this work, the Archbishop of Sydney, The Most Reverend Harry Goodhew, consented to the formation of a committee on Educational Leadership (Bell, 2001, p.359).

The committee met eighteen times over a three-year period. At the first meeting it appointed Ian Mears (Chairman of the Anglican Schools Corporation) to the Chair, and Grant Bell (The Senior Chaplain, The King's School) as Secretary. Its membership consisted of a number of the foremost educational leaders in the Diocese of Sydney. The collective, informed opinion and knowledge of each member would be utilized in order to give an informed picture of the state of Christian leadership in Anglican schools. Each member was assigned various areas of investigation and was to regularly report back to the full committee. The focus of investigation was on spiritual leadership in regard to the recruitment, training and development of staff in Anglican schools in the Diocese. Ian Mears, Chairman of the Anglican Schools Corporation, reported to the first committee meeting in November 1996. Being responsible for recruiting and appointing Heads of Corporation Schools, he expressed his concerns about the "very small pool" of Christian educators as candidates for Headships of the new Anglican schools currently being established in the Diocese. He said,

"There was no training or development of people who were potential heads. There was no pro-active program for the recruitment of Christian educators into the Anglican system. There was a complete void of strong, well informed, well trained (theologically) Christian teachers to be considered for leadership positions." (Synod Report, 21/96).

A second area of concern of spiritual leadership in Anglican schools was that of Chaplaincy. The Rev. W. France and Mr. Roderick West reported that the standard of "the Chaplaincy" in Church schools has been a great problem. It has not been an attractive position for clergy and the Diocese has taken the attitude that those who were not suitable for parish ministry were relegated to school ministry. Other members agreed with this assessment. The Archbishop, and Dr Peter Jensen, Principal of Moore Theological College, also confirmed that this had been the policy in the Diocese

previously (Synod Report 21/96).

The committee divided into three working groups to investigate the state of Christian ministry and leadership in the categories of Staff, Chaplains and Principals in Anglican schools in the Diocese. The working groups were to contact various schools, both parochial (parish based) and extra parochial (Diocesan), where necessary, to gather information. A total of thirty schools in the Diocese were subject to this inquiry. The working groups were then to report to the full committee meetings with their findings.

In the subsequent committee meetings information was gathered and collated to bring before the Synod a report on the state of Christian leadership in Anglican Schools. What follows is a summary of the findings of the draft report after a three-year analysis by the committee.

The Report Summary

The analysis of spiritual leadership in schools was divided into three sections and the committee's report thus addressed (a) Staff in General; (b) Chaplains and (c) Senior Executive Staff. Specifically the areas researched were the "Recruitment, Training and Development" of these personnel.

Staff in General

The committee reported that most Anglican Schools desired highly competent staff, expert in their field, with a caring attitude towards their students and other staff, and who are committed Christians. They recognized that a problem emerges when one applicant is better in some, but less able in others of these criteria. They also noted that most Anglican schools in the Diocese often employed staff who are not committed to the Christian faith presumably because they think the criteria governing general competencies are more important for the school's needs than the applicant's Christian commitment. It was also noted that even in schools that rated Christian commitment as very important, "Christian" was interpreted very broadly. Several Principals reported the total lack of suitably qualified Christian applicants particularly in specialty areas.

The contents of the report confirm the findings of the survey and interviews conducted with Heads of schools with regard to the difficulty faced by them in employing competent staff that was also Christian. Evidence was given to the committee that, where applicants were equal in other criteria,

the Christian was not always given preference in appointment. The committee thought this valued the Christian qualification too poorly - Christian commitment should be the priority in appointment. It expressed the belief that Diocesan schools ought to model a Christian understanding of the world and in particular relationships. This would be impossible if the majority of the staff held other views (Judd, 1987, p.225f). Christianity, it argued, needs to be modeled and not just taught (Vardy, 1997). The whole area of teaching values and beliefs in developing a Christian curriculum can only be achieved if the staff are at "one" with this process and take an active role in this strategy (Luhmann, 1995, p.214f).

The report also noted that, either from choice or necessity, the majority of Anglicans in the Diocese educate their children in State schools and some in other independent schools. Christian teachers should also be encouraged to teach in these schools to meet the needs of these families. This should be promoted at a Diocesan level for the sake of Christian witness and mission. The problem therefore emerges in finding sufficient Christian staff for all these needs.

One solution would be to challenge the order of priority that many have in choosing a vocation. The common worldview has a hierarchy of occupations based on values such as prestige, anticipated salary and power. This is the very opposite to the values placed by Jesus on leadership in the Gospels and which was expounded in the theoretic framework. A Christian hierarchy would rate opportunities for advancing the Kingdom of God more highly and model the values of the Kingdom as seen in selfless service and sacrifice. Consequently, the committee argued that Christian young people should be encouraged to recognize teaching as a highly important vocation (Bell, 2001, p.362f).

One of the difficult problems that emerged in Principals (Heads) making appointments of committed Christians was in finding agreement on the definition of "committed Christian." The problem was further highlighted in the survey/interview phase of this thesis where many of the participants produced broad, and somewhat conflicting views in this respect.

The committee set the following criteria to help Principals identify staff that are articulate and committed Christians. Committed Christians claim that:

They trust in Jesus Christ for forgiveness of sin and restoration of fellowship with God.

Jesus Christ is Lord of their life.

They believe the tenets of the Apostle's Creed.

They believe in the Bible as the authoritative word of God.

They demonstrate a personal faith by belonging to and attending a Christian Church." (Synod Report 21/96)

They model obedience to Christ in that they are of good repute among fellow believers and in the world generally; care about those among whom they work; are selfless in their service, and

They are "articulate and well equipped Christians" in that they are able to explain their Christian beliefs and teach others the Christian faith. The committee thought it desirable that Principals look for Christians who would see their teaching more as a ministry and spiritual leadership role than a job (Bell, 2001, p.364).

In order to have a pool of suitable people who have the qualification to be Spiritual leaders in schools, the recruitment of junior staff is critical.

The Spiritual Development of Staff

All Anglican schools have some form of corporate worship to focus the Spiritual life of the school community. They all have a religious studies program for their student body. They have Christian mottoes and school hymns. Many have prayers at the opening of staff meetings. Many have voluntary staff bible studies and prayer meetings. The report also confirmed the Christian motivation of all the Heads as they endeavor to reflect Christian principles and values in the school's curriculum and modus operandi.

There was a recognition that the primary role of a school is to offer a good general education and the energies of the staff ought to be used in this direction. While the school is not in the strict sense a Church, it is broadly a Christian community and an arm of the mission of the Church. The committee endorsed that a new direction is necessary:

"Gone are the days when it (church school) was a service to the community just to provide a good education. The state has a fine system in place and requires compulsory school attendance to everyone less than fifteen years. There are also many fine independent secular schools so the Diocese has to consider why it is

involved in the governance of Anglican Schools". (Bell, 2001, p.366).

Should the Diocese have a role or governance of Anglican schools, or should they operate independently? The committee felt that,

"If the Diocese is to be involved in the governance of the schools, the school should offer more than a good secular education. Diocesan schools must offer a distinctively Christian education." (Bell, p.367).

Therefore, the spiritual development of the staff was viewed by the committee as the primary responsibility of the school in fulfilling its purpose. The role of the Head, as the spiritual leader, was to provide a context in which staffs were encouraged to approach their work with prayer. They should have opportunities to reflect personally on God's Word and its implications for their teaching, their conduct and their lives. They should also have opportunities to discuss and develop their own leadership skills and Christian strategies relevant to their teaching.

These opportunities should be recognized in the school day and the business of the program should not pre-empt the responsibilities of teachers to develop their own practices of Spiritual piety in their own time. The Diocese should also offer such opportunities to emphasize the importance of these practices in developing their staff as Christians, and for coordinating and modeling the school's Christian witness. The report also emphasized that, because Anglican schools employ some non-Christian staff, these must be respected and their integrity honored. However, the terms of employment must make the Christian character of the school explicit and all prospective staff must understand that they will be required to take part in Christian activities such as chapel services (Synod Report 21/96).

Spiritual Training of Staff

In the Committee's inquiries the availability of adequate, suitably qualified staff was revealed as a problem for Heads in developing their Christian programs and philosophy in the schools. There are no formal or informal requirements for the training of Christian staff. In most Anglican schools the Heads orientate their own staff and offer advice or direction when needed. While it is a positive move for Heads to take this initiative, the problem is one of "quality control"; the

system is pragmatic and sporadic and any clear overall standard or strategy is absent. By way of contrast, in many Catholic schools, even non-systemic, new staffs are required to attend an orientation course run in the name of the Catholic Church. In a brief conversation in 1996 at a GPS sporting fixture the Heads of St Ignatius College, Riverview and St. Joseph's College, Hunters Hill advised the writer that they expected every staff member to be able and equipped to teach Religious Education in their schools (Bell, 2001, p.359f).

In Parent Controlled Schools and some Christian Community Schools staff are expected to attend an annual conference run in the name of the respective associations. The committee was aware of the distinct differences between Catholic and, say, Parent Controlled Schools, and Anglican schools, even if there were also some common features. It felt that there was a need for the Diocese to develop a common training program, which reflects, "more precisely the philosophy of Anglican schools and principles of theology, similar to those taught in Moore Theological College (Bell, 2001, p.368)."

Senior Executive Staff

The report did not attempt to cover all matters pertinent to the recruitment of executive staff but merely those that particularly relate to the Christian or Spiritual emphasis of the school. There were a number of expectations outlined by the committee in relation to Heads. The following is a summary of these expectations:

School Councils responsible for the appointment of Heads or affirming the appointment of other executive staff of any Anglican School will seek to appoint a person of genuine Christian commitment and active church involvement. A potential candidate should have a sound understanding of the Christian faith as revealed in scripture, demonstrate the marks of a mature Christian character, in particular, honesty, humility, sexual purity and integrity in all relationships. Furthermore, such a person should demonstrate Christian wisdom and sound judgment, and be able to subscribe to the teaching of the Anglican Church as it is expressed in the Book of Common Prayer and the Thirty-Nine Articles. (Synod Report 21/96)

The report clearly sets out the chain of command when it

outlines the responsibilities of leadership of a Head - he or she is responsible for the implementation of policy: the educational, spiritual, pastoral, managerial and administrative functions of the school. As the Chief Executive Officer of the school the Head reports regularly to the Council. He or she attends meetings, but is not normally a voting member. The committee recommended:

"That a Principal (Head) keep up-to-date with educational thinking and practice, but actively seek to develop and implement a Christian philosophy of education in the life of the school, as determined in consultation with the School council." (Bell, 2001, p. 374).

To develop a Christian philosophy of education will be enshrined in the legislation of the Anglican Church as part of the contractual responsibility of Heads. This is a bureaucratic move to protect the spiritual foundation of the school.

Singularly the most difficult and challenging situation arises when a Head is appointed to an Anglican School, but who has not the spiritual qualification, both in practice and training, to do the job. These are they who do not have an informed and developed Christian worldview and, therefore, cannot consider theologically or spiritually the broad issues that arise in the management of the school. It is then that the spiritual mission of the school become pragmatic with no real strategic framework is seen in the application of the Christian philosophy of the school.

Development and Training

The committee recognized the extraordinarily high and stressful demands on Heads and also that the role can be very significant in spiritual leadership and advancing the Christian ethos of the school. It believed that parish churches should make closer links with schools and support Heads by way of fellowship and recognition of their spiritual ministry.

Some Heads actively seek young Christian staff with leadership skills and offer them experiences that will enhance their development. Especially when appointed as Deputies, such staff may be encouraged to participate in Council and other executive meetings. The role of Head is not only demanding, but involves confidential matters that cannot easily be shared. The role of the School Council Chairman could also have an important pastoral function. The committee

encouraged the Diocese to appoint able, spiritually minded people to School Councils, from which a suitable person may be chosen to chair the Council. Obviously the Chaplain, who has a ministry to staff, should be a spiritual advisor to the Head as well.

Out of this inquiry it was noted there was a particular problem in the selection of female Heads. While it is extraordinarily difficult to find male Heads who are theologically qualified, when choosing a woman the pool is often reduced by eliminating married women. Many Christian women teachers withdraw from the workforce for about a ten-year period while they have a family and re-enter later in life when many of their peers are eligible for appointment as Heads and other senior positions. The committee believed it was important not to lose gifted Christian women from senior positions in Anglican schools. It therefore recommended to Heads that they encourage such women to maintain their skills by offering part-time work convenient to them. The committee also recommended that Heads encourage suitable older women as well as younger to become Heads (Synod Report 21/96).

The recruitment, training and development of educators in Church schools must rest squarely on the shoulders of the Diocese. Most of the schools surveyed come under the direction of the Diocesan Synod, who has a controlling influence in school councils to exercise governance of the schools. For many years the Diocese has adopted a "hands off" approach, allowing their schools to find their own levels in education and administration. All the Heads who participated in the research of this thesis were capable, well qualified educational administrators, with broad experience in their profession. There is no doubt that these people would excel in any secular educational institution. However, the reason for the establishment and continuation of the Church school is to provide an alternative to secular education that has a charismatic priority based on Christian values and beliefs. Church Schools in ministry terms are large parishes and those who lead should have the qualifications to do so. This requires not merely a Christian commitment of sorts, but a strong mature faith, which is informed. It is not the Head of a School's fault if he or she does not possess the proper qualifications to handle the spiritual rigors of the position. The question of training and equipping the leadership to pastor and teach the led is an important issue and in the

Paul's letters it is an important response and obligation of a Church leader. The Diocese has neglected to confront the questions of the spiritually equipping or training potential Heads of schools. What exists at present in the Diocese of Sydney is a pragmatic approach to this issue, which in recent times has been recognized by Diocesan leaders and steps have begun to rectify this problem (Bell, 2001, p.224f). Hopefully the findings of this thesis will form part of this process.

5. Conclusion

In the light of modern educational analysis, any school is a complex system, but the Church School in the Anglican Diocese of Sydney is, arguably, more complicated than secular schools. There are three areas of concern for those analyzing Church schools. These areas are:

- (1) The social relationships of the school and how these relate to society in general.
- (2) The internal responsibilities of intellectual, pastoral and physical activity.
- (3) The Church relationships and the spiritual life of the school.

The first two areas affect any school, public or independent. However, the Church school adds the third area of concern. This thesis has established that the third area, the spiritual, Christian component, is not simply an addition, but foundational, because, in a Church school, how the first two are defined is dependent on the fundamental spiritual foundation of the school that affects every aspect of life in the school community (Beavis, 1998). A Church school community's basis for legitimization is charismatic, understood ultimately in a personal bond with God through Jesus Christ. It is from this belief structure that the values of the community are established and communicated as the philosophy of education and the *modus operandi* of the school. Leadership, therefore, to be true to the very nature of the community has to be solidly based on spiritual commitment and belief. In an Anglican school, it is a leadership that has to be laden with Christian values. It is, in Weberian terms, a Charismatic leadership; a "pure Charisma" (Weber, 1952, p. 120-131) modeled from a developed biblical framework, as argued in Holmberg and Theissen, with Christ's example and teaching as the fundamental plank. Charismatic leadership in

a Christian community, through the incarnation of Christ, is the stable and dominant characteristic - it determines the whole direction of the community (Holmberg 1978, p.150f & Theissen, 1992, p.26).

The third principle can, however, create a problem of how best to apply the New Testament teaching to a school community in a post-modern society. After all Church schools, particularly in the Anglican tradition, can be viewed as anachronisms of a past age, as Brindley attempts to establish. It seems strange that we should attempt to apply the values and beliefs of something so tied to the past. However, the incongruity of the gospel message was equally strong in St. Paul's day when he spoke to the Jews and Gentiles of the Greek-speaking world in Corinth; to the Gentiles the message of Christ was nothing more than folly and to the Jews it was a scandal. Theissen and Holmberg argue that the incarnation of Christ has introduced a pure routinized charisma of leadership and organizational theory that is permanent and revolutionary, in that it reverses the natural order of things. Theissen says that Christian communities,

"Developed a religion with a different legitimate structure. In this religion, God's will was discovered not by way of legalistic hermeneutical procedures but through personal, charismatic bond with Jesus, and with the Spirit...In justifying theological and ethical convictions, the ultimate court of appeal was the presence of God in Jesus." (Theissen, 1992, p.27)

This study highlights not only the need for visionary, charismatic leaders in Anglican schools, who are faithful to the original biblical principles, but for further research with the view of a complete examination and transformation of school organizations and leadership. What are needed are men and women who possess the pure charisma as leaders, who have the vision and industry to drive these programs of reformation.

The most critical matter that has been identified in recent years is that of the spiritual leadership of these schools and the absence of spiritual qualifications or training (formal and informal) of prospective Heads to fill positions. There are no set guidelines for councils on the qualifications for spiritual leadership at this level. Certainly it is a bonus if a prospective Head has some formal training in theology and has a good practical "track record" in Christian leadership. But, this is a rarity and the school selection committee is usually left to

employ pragmatic methods to ascertain the quality or otherwise of the candidate. With the advent of "headhunting" firms and the compilation of the professional curriculum vitae where the candidates can cover every conceivable question that may come their way with the conviction of St Paul, it is no wonder the task of determining genuine spirituality is extremely difficult. In nearly all cases surveyed the participants believe they had the necessary spiritual qualifications to successfully manage a school at this level. Nevertheless, without any rigorous objective assessment available, the mission of the Church in this vital area is left with a superficial, inadequate process in the appointment of Heads who have to exercise a spiritual leadership in large ecclesiastical organizations.

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Note: Hobbs' outlook on government reflects Machiavelli's principle of 'necessita' of government - order to create peace and decision by sovereign power on behalf of the community to survive the ravages of time, insurrection and disaffected groups. Hobbs' certain obligation on the part of the ruler to establish rule as a moral art reflects Machiavelli's 'virtue', where the sovereign promises to protect the rights of citizens and promote the common good. These are the conditions of leadership. Hobbs differs from Machiavelli in the area of moral obligation, where Machiavelli avoids any ethical consideration.

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多元智能評量與教學設計釋要

張國祥

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本文首先利用2001年底香港兩個頗受歡迎的電視問答遊戲節目來說明智能的三大本質，並追溯《中庸》適性教育思想給後世的明示。接著從中醫辨症施治角度闡述多元智能評量原理和方法，以及提出解讀智能光譜所需的通盤考慮，作為評鑑多元智能量表建構效度的基礎。本文最後論述了多元智能教育的實施與研究的路向。

An Explication of Multiple Intelligences Inspired Assessment and Instructional Design

This paper starts by using two popular television quiz programs to highlight the three basic properties of human intelligence, and deploying one Chinese classic to analyze retrospectively the implications of thoughts pertaining to Individually Configured Education. Principles and methodologies of multiple intelligences assessment from the Chinese medical perspective, alongside nuts and bolts of multiple intelligences spectrum (MI-Spectrum) and its construct validation procedures are then presented. This paper finishes by discussing the implementation of multiple intelligences education, and pointing out the research directions.

一、智能的本質 — 從「百萬富翁」和「一筆OUT消」談起

在2001年底，香港兩間電視台先後推出不同形式的問答遊戲節目，吸引了一片以追求廣博知識以期一夜致富的熱潮。依本人分析，兩個節目的遊戲形式有助我們瞭解人類智能的一些最重要的本質。

「百萬富翁」深受觀眾歡迎的關鍵，是它體現了知識就是財富的道理。我們在日常生活中，隨著個人智慧的成長，需要解決一個接一個的難題，這些難題的答案並不是全部都可以在書本中找到的，個人生活經驗和廣泛閱歷往往更具關鍵性。對於一些容易問題，參賽者可以輕易的憑藉個人內在稟賦和學識成功作答。若果有所懷疑的話，可以首先運用「50／50錦囊」要求主持人刪去一半錯誤的答案，繼而運用分析能力作答，從而增加答對的機會。若果問題比較貼近每個人的生活的話，可以運用「現場觀眾錦囊」看看主流想法，再估計失敗的代

價才予以採納。對於那些專業性的問題，可以運用「打電話找專家錦囊」尋求協助，以彌補自己知識面不足之蔽。

我們往往看到一些自負的、自以為是的參賽者，由於不善或吝於使用錦囊，導致飲恨鍛羽而歸。「百萬富翁」節目中的問題，雖然以知識為主，但都具有正確或最佳答案，跟我們經常接觸的難題大異其趣，從參賽者的作答過程已經充分的體現了人類智能的「多元化」、「脈絡化」、「分佈化」本質，即個人在解決周遭問題時，必須充分靈活結合個人內在稟賦和外在智慧資源，方能較易取得最大的成功。遺憾的是，這些潛在能力都不是傳統的IQ測驗可以輕易有效度地、有信度地評量出來。

在「百萬富翁」過五關、斬六將的參賽者，極有可能在另一問答遊戲節目「一筆OUT消」中率先出局，這是什麼道理呢？「一筆OUT消」跟「百萬富翁」不同，參賽者不只要專心的應付問題，還要在一個充滿競爭性、淘汰性的環境中突圍而出，因此最後的勝出者並不一定是學問和閱歷最為廣博的。他們只是最能運用策

略，一方面積累巨額獎金，另一方面步步為營地、攻於心計地淘汰潛在競爭對手，得勝者考慮往往以利害為主，裏應外合的動用所有資源來達到個人自私目的。「一筆OUT消」的八位參賽者，必須在首幾個回合結合智慧力量，聯手淘汰那些最弱的參賽者，以期累積高額獎金。比賽到了中段以後，必須認清誰是最具威脅的對手，儘量找機會將他們淘汰出局，以免夜長夢多；同時自己也要明哲保身，避免鋒芒太露，否則被其他參賽者識破，縱使才高八斗，也只能接受殘酷現實被擠出局，得不到分毫獎金利益。遊戲末段剩下二人，在毫無其他競爭者底下首先聯手積累巨額獎金，再互相對決，成者為王、敗者為寇，口服心不服的讓最後的勝利者獨得豐額獎金，失敗者只能「一筆OUT消」，黯然離場，擇日東山再起。

「一筆OUT消」的遊戲模式，機智的表現在爾虞我詐、勾心鬥角的交往中，雖然不成體統，但在現實功利社會卻觸目皆是。在這節目中，我們可以充分體會到：智能的運用，在高度競爭性的社會，同仁若果能夠相互協作，各展所長，聯手合作戰勝對手，才是生存致勝之道。多元智能理論不能回答這兩種遊戲模式哪一種較為可取，哪一種值得鼓勵，但它卻揭櫫多元智能在解決問題和創造生存環境時，我們所應抱持的共榮態度和所應發揮的協作能力。值得注意的是，傳統的IQ測驗，不能讓老師瞭解兒童在這些實作方面的能力表現和處事態度。

二、適性教育 — 追溯《中庸》教育思想給後世的明示

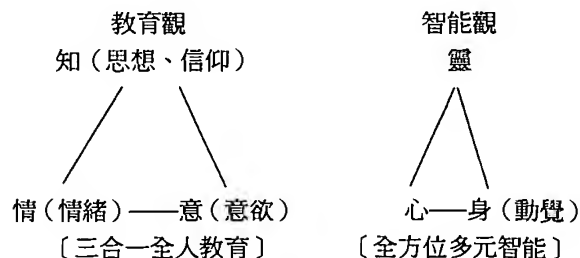
我猜想，世界上每一個盛行的正規教育系統，皆無不推崇以五育並重為主的優質教育理想，對兒童實施適性素質教育。惟這理想能否有效實施，端賴支持這理想背後的教育觀是否跟教育工作者所抱持之智能觀相互吻合。例如：假若教師相信兒童的稟賦有相當部分是天生的，兒童的智能有上智下愚之分，或者兒童腦中的訊息感知和處理速度有快慢之別的話，教師則比較傾向將學生分流分等，課程也會採多網多本模式，務使教學流程不受這些能力差異延滯，學生則按其資質經評核後接受不同形式的教育。過去流行的資優教學、補救教學、精熟教學、核心和剪裁課程等想法，都是抱持此種智能高低和快慢的觀念而展開的，而傳統的IQ測驗，為精英主義教育和智障生補救教學服務了差不多一整個世紀。

隨著廿一世紀終身學習社會的來臨，教育工作者都在苦思基礎教育怎樣改革，才可以培養未來社會各行各業所需要的人才。我國古代典籍所載的珍貴教育思想，是否可以為正在孕育中的終身學習社會提供清晰而可行的路向呢？《中庸》開宗明義說：「天命之謂性，率性之謂道，修道之謂教。」這古訓指出適性教育就是「教」的本義，也就是教師所應循之「道」，其目的是順著上天賦予兒童各種形式的稟賦，按率性原則修明他們的本性。從多元智能角度可以這樣詮釋，智能是多元的，它是以潛能的形式存在，並按其特質有所區分，其萌發歷程也就是適性教育的過程。

那麼，教師應該如何啟迪學童多元智能？又有哪些才能受到社會珍視而應該重點開發呢？《中庸》載有萬世師表孔子的語錄，其中孔子引述《詩經》曰：「伐柯，伐柯，其則不遠。」一 意謂手執斧頭砍伐木材來製作斧柄，若不知如何選材和設計，手中所握的斧頭就是最好參照點。同樣道理，終身教育的重點，教育工作者若果是茫無頭緒的話，可以審視我們現正生活社會到底需要哪些人才？而這些人才又需要具備哪些品質和學養？我們的學生才能潛質怎樣？有哪些活動可以啟迪這些潛質以配合社會人才需求？反觀以應試教育為鵠的教育系統，較難想象它能夠為終身學習社會的來臨作好應有的準備。

我認為，迦納(Gardner)最近倡議的個別化適性教育(Individually Configured Education)，跟《中庸》所說的「率性」、「教」和「道」的意涵是一致的。這是因為按多元智能理論而開展的教育活動，並沒有違背了《中庸》所傳承的全人教育觀，多元智能在「靈、心、身」全方位的考慮，其實跟中國「知、情、意」三位一體的全人教育觀是相互吻合的，並且是並行不悖的。

圖一
跟「全人教育」相互吻合之「多元智能」觀



三、智能評量原理和方法 — 中醫 辨症施治的啟示

評量首重效度，教師該如何有效的評量學童的多元智能來實現因材施教這崇高理想呢？迦納自七十年代末期開始，從神經心理學和人類學角度，致力研究受各個文化社會皆重視的潛在能力，於1983年提出了劃時代的多元智能理論。經過過去十多年的努力，教育工作者已經初步掌握了這些智能的核心內涵和成長規律，也提出了每種智能的表徵和具備這些智能的典範人物。不容置疑的是，透徹的認識多元智能理論是有效實施智能評量的基石，明白真實性評量 (authentic assessment)、實作評量 (performance assessment)、動態評量 (dynamic assessment)、以及檔案評量 (portfolio assessment) 在多元智能評量所扮演的角色，以及如何將評量跟教學緊密結合，都是非常重要的研究課題。

我想跟大家分享的是：從中醫辨症施治的角度來審視多元智能評量原理和方法，是非常有啟發性的，從中我們可以更為容易瞭解多元智能評量和傳統課堂測驗及考試所扮演的角色。中醫不像西醫，它的理論主要是建基於陰陽五行學說，其中引用氣、血、津液和經絡等直觀概念來闡述病理和病因的。因此它是比較著重從整體的「身、心、靈」全人角度來考查身體機能的健康狀況，例如它認為各臟腑之間互有關聯影響，且和體表病徵互為表裏（上海中醫學院，2001）。多元智能也是一樣，各種智能並不是相互獨立的，其核心的感知和資訊處理過程是互有關聯的，因而我們的心智是統整的。我們不難發現，我們所從事的各項活動，只有極少數只是通過個別單一智能來完成的，反而絕大多數是由於各種智能能夠得到綜合的靈巧運用，各項問題才得以順利解決，各種意念才得以悠然產生。

因此，理解智能的整全性及其內在關係對如何實施多元智能評量，對評鑑多元智能建構效度都是非常重要的。評量環境和評量標準必須顧及智能的多元化、脈絡化和分佈化本質，絕不適宜像傳統的IQ智商評量那樣，只是簡單的通過紙筆測驗去考查那些少量無關痛癢的知識和能力，更不宜以IQ分數來標籤學生，延續IQ智商在過去一世紀歷久不衰的神話。

中醫主要是通過四診（望、聞、問、切）和八綱（表裏、寒熱、虛實、陰陽）辨症施治的。簡言之，四診可以比喻為評量方法，八綱則從芸芸眾多的評量準則中歸納出一些有助綜合反映五臟六腑功能和身體狀況的準則，好讓醫師從質與量兩方面對病者體質作出判斷。望

診著重觀察病者頭、面的色澤形態，舌頭、舌苔的色澤和狀態，與及分泌物和排泄物的情況。聞診則著意檢查病者所發出的聲音和所散發的氣味，看看是否異乎尋常。問診是想了解過去病歷、目前疾病的發生和發展過程，以及用藥後的反應等，問診時要盡量耐心的聽取病人的自述，了解病人主觀感覺的反映，查明病人的大小二便、飲食口味、生活規律、睡眠習慣和思想情緒等狀況。切診則以觸診和脈診為主，是醫生觸摸病人體表和利用經脈，判斷病者氣血盛衰和運行情況，其中脈象之變化，對病情順逆和進退，為醫師提供了極為有用的治療訊息。可以肯定的是，臨床經驗非常重要，那些經驗豐富的醫師有能力將脈搏跳動的形態和性質作出綜合分析，並總結出一些具臨床意義的脈象來辨症施治，例如滑脈來去流利，如盤走珠，可主孕或主痰，醫師必須匯合四診結果後，方才可以決定醫治和預後方案。

多元智能評量原理和方法也可以通過「四評」和跟據「八綱」的辨症精神來加以考量。首先，教師可以觀察學童日常課堂外內的活動，盡量知悉他們在「知、情、意」三方面的表現，特別是他們的學習態度和工作風格。其次，教師可以檢查學童的功課和習作，分析他們所喜愛和擅長的活動，並為學生建立成長或歷程檔案，目前已有不少研究顯示這些檔案有助促進教師對學生的深度了解，也為學童的綜合成長提供有系統的紀錄。對年幼的學童，可以參考瑞吉歐教學取向的聆聽童聲方法，了解他們的學習需要和對事物的想法；至於年齡較大的學童，可以讓他們自評多元智能發展情況，使他們知道自己是如何聰明，從而了解智能在哪方面較具優勢，哪方面則尚待萌發。最後，教師可以配合課程，有系統的全面進行校本多元智能評量，為每一位學童製作多元智能剖面圖 — 智能光譜 (Intelligence Spectrum)。

需要指出的是：「四評」跟傳統的測驗和考試不同，它並不囿於紙筆形式和課室書本環境，而是主要通過真實的脈絡化學習環境（例如：專題研習，方案教學，調查考察等），鼓勵學生採用不同智能組合及認知符號系統來解決問題和從事創作。若果資源和時間配合的話，教師最好能夠有系統的將成長歷程、學習過程和學習結果記錄存檔，方便家校更好合作，以利於監控學童綜合成長。

跟中醫醫師臨床經驗的重要性一樣，多元智能評量的成功關鍵，取決於教師對多元智能理論和學生的充分了解，以及多元智能評量經驗多寡而定。目前港澳地區一些中、小、幼學校，已經成功的開展了多元智能評量研究，這些學校的寶貴經驗，是極具參考價值的。跟中醫

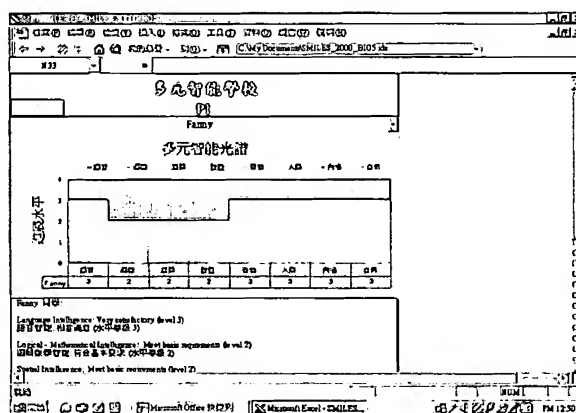
的氣血辨症、臟腑辨症和病邪辨症原理相同，學校是需要針對八種智能的內涵、表徵和成長規律設計多元智能觀察項目，不同年齡和學習階段的側重點亦需要周詳顧及。表一載有澳門一所幼稚園為幼一至幼三年級設計的「多元智能觀察量表」題目樣本，每個智能觀察項目均採納李克特 (Likert) 三點量表，每種智能量表由 10 - 15 項觀察項目構成。

評量標準看來簡單，但製訂過程絕不容易，教師往往不能決定要達到甚麼程度，某智能項目的三點進展水平才可以評為「優勢能力、展現高度興趣〔S〕」、「相當於年級／年齡水平〔A〕」、「尚待發展、展現低度興趣〔L〕」，研究初段常有力不從心之感。在此，中醫的「八綱辨症」有助於我們思考這道難題。首先八綱中最具概括性的「陰」、「陽」兩綱，著重思考分析某智能項目進展水平 S 和 L 兩極所牽涉內涵的最根本差異在哪裏？其次的「表」、「裏」兩綱，使我們聯想到某智能項目的成長歷程，是否仍在開始新手階段〔L〕，抑或已經發展至較為後期的熟手專家水平〔S〕。最後的「寒」、「熱」和「虛」、「實」四綱，原意是指身體的各項機能是否充沛旺盛，系統各項功能是否運作正常？身體正常物質基礎是否盈富豐實，是否需要固本培源？這些準則都是通過氣、血和經絡等直觀概念來加以闡明的。

今將八綱辨症原理引申至多元智能項目評量，老師也是需要從「性質狀況」和「盈虧多寡」角度考量各智能項目的過程和產出的質量水平，才能將〔S〕、

〔A〕和〔L〕的評量準則具體的確定下來，例如學童對某益智活動喜愛或擅長到甚麼程度，才能夠被評定為〔S〕，對某創作活動的敏感度和專業度達不到甚麼水平，才有可能被評定為〔L〕等。教師評量經驗多了，會跟中醫的專業成長一樣，逐步利用「八綱」鑑辨多元智進展水平，並掌握其中竅門，表二提供了澳門一所小學小一至小四年級其中一道空間智能評量項目的評量環境和評量標準作為範例。圖二則展示一個尚待進行效度評鑑的多元智能光譜示例，這光譜利用了「校本多元智能評量系統 (SMILES)」進行數據分析，並仿照中醫切脈時所得到反映五臟六腑健康狀況的脈象圖，繪製反映八項多元智能進展水平的剖面圖。

圖二
尚待進行效度評鑑的多元智能光譜式樣



四、多元智能量表建構效度評鑑 — 解讀智能光譜所需的通盤考慮

評鑑測量首重效度的通盤考慮，Messick (1989) 的統一效度理論提供了四個指引性步驟，讓學校老師按序評鑑「多元智能量表」的建構效度，特綜合整理如下：

	評量等級之解釋	評量等級之用途
證據之搜集	第一步：將學生樣本逐一按八種智能的四個進展水平分組，參考各智能項目先前設定的評量標準後，解釋各組學童在哪些方面的發展已具優勢？哪些發展適中？哪些尚待萌發？教師可以分析相同智能水平的學童的共通點，製訂標準化評語解釋各智能的進展水平(參閱表三)。	第二步：研究評量結果是否合理？有哪些學生的智能分佈異於班主任、同儕或家長的期望？評量背景和評量環境是否適用於這些學童？有哪些智能分佈具特殊教育意義，並且有助實踐適性素質教育理想？有哪些明朗化經驗可以促進智能發展？有哪些麻痺化經驗妨礙智能的正常萌發等等？
評量後果之考慮	第三步：教學活動設計是否符合適性教育原理：減負強本、一貫統整、因材施教、賦權增能。研究教學安排和配套措施是否使學生更為想學、會學和樂學？這些教育改良計劃是否得到學校、社會在政策和資源上的支持？	第四步：智能光譜的使用是否符合預期的後果？有否受到誤用或濫用而引起不良副作用，因而遠離適性教育的目標？

圖二的多元智能光譜是常模參照的，有待教師按照上述四個步驟進行建構效度評鑑，將光譜轉化為標準參照模式。表三載有澳門一所小學小一班的「學生多元智能進展水平等級描述」作為示例。若評鑑後效度理想的話，教師可以把標準參照的智能光譜發放給學生和家長，更可以據此展開多元智能教育活動。

五、多元智能教育的實施 — 多元才能與深度理解並重的教育模式

在1983年《心靈架構：多元智能理論》一書中，Gardner嘗試對智能一詞作出定義：解決問題和創造物品的能力，而這些能力最少受到一個文化社會所重視。差不多20年後，他在《智能重構：邁向廿一世紀的多元智能》一書中對多元智能的性質作出說明：多元智能是具有生物心理特性的潛能，能夠處理感知器官在特定文化背景中被激活的訊息，作用是解決問題和創造受文化重視的物品。基於這兩部經典著作思想，本文特提出有利於潛能開發的多元智能教育四大原理，列舉如下：

1. 尊重學童間才能差異、瞭解才智之分佈進展。
2. 認識社會所珍視素養、啟迪學童之多元智能。
3. 運用多元化教學方法、實現因材施教與施教。
4. 培養創新意識和能力、重視問題解決與創造。

多元智能教育不適合填鴨式應試教育環境，它致力於追求一種重視深度理解、在日常生活中解決難題，以及在自己的文化社會中從事創作的適性素質教育環境，多元智能教育是以「求真、至善、臻美」為宗旨的，啟迪多元智能的最終目的，是幫助兒童發展社會各行各業所珍惜的多元才能。因此，欲成功的實踐多元智能教育，必須具備以下二項必要前提：

1. 學校應該清楚知道自己的辦學宗旨、所追求的遠景、以及教學理想，多元智能理論是一個智能架構的理論，它並沒有規範教師應該教些什麼，更沒有標示教師如何進行教學。因此，實踐多元智能理念的學校是教學自主的，教師應製定多元化教學策略，實現「因勢利導、因材施教」之因材施教理想，通過開展學童潛能，培養符合辦學宗旨的多元才能。
2. 開放的學校文化是實踐多元智能理論的促進劑，教師需要有機會和渠道切磋多元智能教學經驗，有充足時間、空間和資源部署開發兒童潛能的活動，以及有信心進行多元化教學評量，期望通過行動研究，教師得以賦權增能，實現專業成長。

六、多元智能研究的路向

在中國大陸、香港、澳門和台灣地區，相對於美國本土，多元智能研究尚在起步階段，但是已經吸引了教育界的廣泛關注，現特提出一些研究路向，匯聚智慧資源，期望這些有系統的研究能夠開花結果，為莘莘學子的潛能開發和人才栽培作出貢獻。

1. 既然多元智能理論是建基於神經心理學和人類學，我們應該儘快總結最近跟多元智能教育有潛在貢獻之研究成果，讓我們更為了解智能的成長歷程，以及把握智能與智能之間的整合統合關係，通過適性課程，期望收到啟迪多元智能，培養多元才能之教育果效。
2. 擴大研究範圍，從中、小、幼以至各類別教育社群，讓學童充分了解自己的潛能發展概況，再通過家校合作，社區在政策和資源的積極配合，培養終身學習社會人才。例如在初中階段，學校可以引用多元智能理論為學童進行升學和職業取向分析；在幼兒階段配合多元智能理論發展適性主題教學和方案教學活動計劃。
3. 重點研究如何將評量和教學更為緊密結合，例如探討如何將建構主義和進步主義思想跟多元智能合流，助長兒童對知識的深度理解，以及發揮創新意識，鞏固動手解難能力。當大量研究成果湧現，我們更可以探討多元智能教育效能和教育模式，其中研究怎樣設計和應用智能光譜，如中醫利用舌診和脈象來辨症施治一樣，是因材施教成功的基礎。

（本主題報告曾在2001年12月發表於台北市立師範學院幼兒教育學系主辦的「華人地區多元智能 (MI) 課程發展與學習評量系統建構研討會」。）

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表一

澳門一所幼稚園為幼一至幼三年級而設計的「多元智能觀察量表」題目樣本

學生姓名：_____ 性別：男 / 女 樣本編號：_____

班別：_____ 學號：_____ 出生日期：_____ 年 _____ 月 _____ 日

評量老師姓名：_____ 評量完成日期：_____ 年 _____ 月 _____ 日

注意事項：

1. 避免在資訊不全的情況下，以偏蓋全，主觀地作有欠根據的推論。
2. 避免先判斷後觀察，讓偏見妨礙自己虛心求證學生的正確行為表現。
3. 避免不適當的期望和要求影響學生行為的自然表現，應該讓學生自由的表現其真正的心理需求和性向。
4. 評量基準須遵照全級參與評量的教師所達成的共識，教師之間應多交換意見，避免自以為是胡作評量，影響量表的效度。
5. 評量標準：
S = 優勢潛能、展現高度興趣，A = 相當於年級 / 年齡水平，L = 尚待發展、展現低度興趣

智能	觀察項目例子
1. 語言	a. 能細心聆聽、好發問。 b. 發音正確、清晰，能表達自己的感受。
2. 邏輯 -- 數學	a. 能說出事情發生的經過。 b. 喜歡到學習角玩有關數的玩具。
3. 空間	a. 對顏色敏感，繪畫時能利用多種色彩。 b. 能運用物品作立體建構。
4. 肢體動覺	a. 喜歡做摺紙、手工創作。 b. 能模仿和擺出創意的肢體型態。
5. 音樂	a. 有節奏感地隨音樂做律動或進行創意姿勢。 b. 喜歡聽音樂，並表現出舒適陶醉。
6. 人際	a. 樂於參與集體活動，一起遊戲。 b. 待人有禮，懂得輪候，禮讓他人。
7. 內省	a. 能忍耐不發脾氣，懂得控制情緒。 b. 懂得遵守校規，自我控制，專心學習。
8. 自然觀察者	a. 能利用感覺分辨東西的軟硬、味道或色彩。 b. 喜歡探索、觸摸、求問周圍環境及事故。

註：每種智能量表由10-15項觀察項目構成，負責評量的教師都要清楚每個項目的評量環境和評量標準。相同的項目在不同的學校，其評量環境和評量標準是可以不同的。

表二

空間智能評量環境和評量標準示例（澳門巴波沙中葡小學提供）

評量項目 (空間智能)	年級	評量標準		
		優勢能力、展現 高度興趣 (S)	相當於年級 / 年齡 水平 (A)	尚待發展、展現 低度興趣 (L)
能在作品中表現出美感（如色彩配搭、構圖、透視等）	小一	漸漸具備圖形組合的觀念及空間構造的能力；對色彩的處理有時會運用類似色和寒暖色；在作品中時會呈現出物體大小之間的關係。	以主觀的態度來繪畫。對形狀的處理大都只是把眼看到的、腦想到的全畫出來；空間的處理是「展開式」；顏色的運用則是發自內心情感的主觀感覺。	作品的造型、色彩及空間的表現仍停留在誇張、變形與塗鴉的幼兒階段。
	小二	繪畫的表現開始由主觀轉為理性寫實的描繪方式，開始注重細緻的描寫。	開始有圖形組合的觀念及空間構造的能力；色彩開始運用類似色和寒暖色；在作品中也開始呈現物體大小之間的關係。	仍以主觀的態度來繪畫。對形狀的處理都只是把眼看到的、腦想到的畫出來；至於空間的處理手法仍是「展開式」；顏色的運用還是停留在內心情感的主觀感覺而已。
	小三	繪畫已重視遠近的比例；構圖開始運用重疊手法；色彩捕捉能力方面正在萌芽且趨向寫實。	繪畫的表現由主觀轉為理性寫實的描繪方式，開始注重細緻的描寫。	繪畫仍停留在圖形組合的觀念，未有明顯的空間構圖；色彩運用方面仍未發展出理性寫實的描繪方式。
	小四	傾向以視覺元素來繪畫。例如：注意衣服的皺摺、物體的光影變化、三度空間、事物的正確比例與動態的變化等。	繪畫重視遠近的比例、光影明暗、圖案反覆的呈現及自然色彩的捕捉等。	只注意自己感興趣的細節，表現的手法較誇張，採用基底線的空間表現，不考慮正確的比例，色彩的運用則依據情緒的反應主觀地運用，而不與外在實物產生關聯。

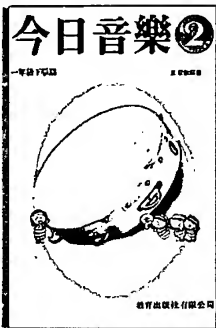
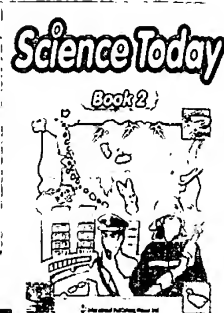
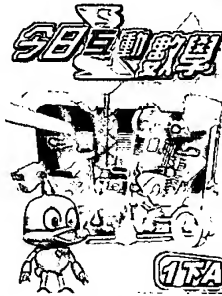
評量環境：教師指示學生用視覺元素來展示其所學的知識，並表現在作品中，藉此分析及理解學生的潛能。

表三：學生多元智能進展水平等級之描述示例（巴波沙中葡小學提供）

第一部分 (小一年級)	語文智能	數學邏輯智能	空間智能	肢體動覺智能
有待提高	學習語文的興趣低。不喜愛文字遊戲等活動，對句子的創造尚欠通順。	對數學符號及其運算的興趣低。只能簡單地操作具體事物的技巧，以及表現出簡單的思考能力。	對視覺藝術活動的興趣低。對顏色、形狀、大小、風景事物的辨別能力弱，亦未能掌握物體空間的概念。	對肢體活動的興趣不大。只能表現簡單的動作技能，對用手操作的工作或事情表現較弱。
符合基本要求	對學習語文有興趣。說話有條理，能流暢地朗讀文章。能運用已有的語言與人溝通，也能寫出文理通順的句子。	對數學有興趣。有能力發展某範圍的標準數學與運算，也能掌握解決各種問題的方法。	對發展空間的活動表現出應有的興趣。更喜愛玩積木、拼圖等與形狀有關的遊戲。	愛參與肢體運動，能使用各種恰當的表意姿態和肢體語言來進行學習。
相當滿意	喜愛閱讀。能恰當地使用語言文字與人溝通及表達自己，更能把學到的新字彙應用在說和寫方面。	對數學興趣較同級或同齡的為高，喜歡用數字工作。在理解及運算等能力方面有良好的表現。	愛用圖像來表達思想感情，能以結構化的訓練方式來表達視覺藝術。	喜歡各種肢體的活動及遊戲。常透過肢體感覺來學習和表達自己。在用手操作的工作或事情上經常有良好的表現。
十分好	愛閱讀、玩文字遊戲。常用語言文字來思考、與人溝通及表達自己。能流暢地朗讀文章，更能寫出文理通順的句子。	對數學有濃厚的興趣。喜歡提出假設，並思考如何進行試驗。對瞭解事物的因果關係有興趣。	喜愛藝術，更愛用圖畫來思考。對周圍環境中的物體、形狀、顏色和型態具覺察力，對藝術創作活動表現出有天份。	樂於從事肢體挑戰、運動遊戲和規律體操。具有足夠的精力進行活動。擅長手藝製作，喜歡用肢體感覺進行學習。

表三：學生多元智能進展水平等級之描述示例（巴波沙中葡小學提供）

第二部分 (小一年級)	音樂智能	人際智能	內省智能	自然觀察智能
有待提高	學習音樂的興趣低。對歌曲的旋律及樂曲樂章等活動未能展現出應有的能力。	欠缺群體精神。常以簡單的方式與人溝通，未能正確地表達自己所思所想。	對自我的要求低。未能比較出自己與他人的不同，更未曾為自己訂立努力的目標。	在觀察大自然的景物時顯得較為被動，對動植物的分類未能達到同齡或同級的水準。
符合基本要求	能投入音樂的活動中，完成教師給與配合年級的音樂或節奏等活動，但對音感的能力表現一般。	珍視與家人及朋友間的關係，懂得與他人分享自己的內心世界。在團隊生活中，常常能夠表現出與人互助合作。	能評量自己的表現，願意接受別人對自己的批評。	喜愛留意自然環境或生活環境的變化，但未能持久。對野外活動或與大自然有關的事物能達到同齡或同級的水準。
相當滿意	有音樂感，在歌唱、節奏、韻律活動和樂器演奏各方面都有理想的表現。	珍視與他人的關係，通常有很多朋友。懂得與人溝通，更能在學習、遊戲及日常生活中遵守秩序，以達致人際溝通的良好效果。	懂得自我反省、自我理解及自我尊重，有能力為自己計劃、分配時間來提昇自我。	在欣賞動植物的過程中表現雀躍。對自然界事物具覺察力，並常以此作為繪畫的題材。
十分好	喜歡音樂。對音樂有覺察力，能準確地唱出樂曲，或配合歌曲用肢體、樂器演奏來表達情意，亦能掌握所學的樂理知識。	熱愛各種團體活動，樂意為人服務。懂得從人與人的互動中學習，在團體中是個既盡職又樂於奉獻的成員。	能客觀地看自己，也能適當地表達自己的感受。明白到自己的言行會影響別人與自己的關係，也會學習各種自我提昇的技巧。	對戶外、動物、植物以及與大自然有關的事物有高度興趣。懂得描述有關自然界事物的資料，更愛與他人分享自己對大自然的感受。



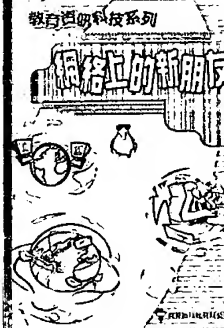
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From “Rooftop” to “Millennium”: the Development of Primary Schools in Hong Kong since 1945

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Hong Kong Institute of Education

This is a study on the evolution of primary education in Hong Kong as reflected in the various designs of primary schools since 1945. This study also shows the relationship between different designs of school building and the conceptualizations of education that underpin them. Six basic primary school designs or prototypes have been identified since 1945. The rooftop primary schools built in the 1950s set a pattern for decades to come relating to the provision of primary education in Hong Kong. Finally this study contrasts the differences in primary education between the British colonial government and the new Special Administrative Region of Hong Kong Government after 1997 when China resumed her sovereignty over Hong Kong.

由天台學校至新世紀學校：戰後迄今之香港小學教育發展

本研究乃從1945年起之香港小學校舍設計進行研究，反思戰後迄今之小學教育發展。本文顯示，不同時期校舍設計以及作為設計根基之教育概念，當中兩者關係。本文將1945年後之校舍設計或標準，分辦成六種類型。過去五十年，香港小學建校模式可追溯至1950年代天台學校。文章最後，比較英國殖民地政府時期及1997年成立香港特別行政區政府後，在小學教育建設方面之差異。

Introduction

In recent years, the physical aspect of public schools has received considerable attention (Earthman, G.I & Lemasters, L. 1997). Like Getzels (1974), we maintain that the school building is more than the physical site to contain teaching and learning. School design also sends a message to its occupants and to the community: “Our visions of human nature find expression in the buildings we construct.” (Getzels 1974, p.538).

In the early 19th century America, Henry Bernard in America proposed the idea of linking physical environment to pedagogical theory. He maintained that the styles of the school building exterior should exhibit correct architectural proportion. Thus, the school building would be calculated to inspire children and the community generally with respect

for the object to which it is devoted (Uline 2000, p.456). Many studies (Earthman & Lemasters, 1997; Brubaker C.W.1998; Maxwell, L.E. 1999) reveal the positive relationship between the physical well being provided by school buildings, student achievement and sense of belonging. At any rate, the design, both exterior and interior, of the school does reflect the designer’s concept of education. A study on these different school building designs will illustrate how the government perceives education at different times.

The Hong Kong primary school evolution since 1945

In this paper, the evolution of primary education in Hong Kong since 1945 is outlined. We trace the design and

construction of primary schools and argue that provision of a positive learning environment should be the foremost concern designing school premises. According to Chan (1996, p.1), a positive learning environment consists of four main factors: visual, acoustical, aesthetic and thermal environment. The visual environment refers to appropriate lighting system in the classroom to facilitate students in focusing their tasks. The acoustical environment means a well design environment free from external noise disturbance. The aesthetic environment focuses on an appropriate use of pastel color to accommodate student learning activities. The thermal environment includes adequate air conditioning, heating and air ventilation. Besides the four basic environment factors, size, location, spatial relationship are among some of the other important considerations (Chan, 1996, p.2).

In this paper, we try to explore the relationship between different designs of school building and the conceptualizations of education that underpin them. It will focus on the different designs of primary schools, which were directly designed and constructed by the Hong Kong government including the government-run and the government-subsidized schools, which take over 90% of local primary schools now.

As each new primary school design would undergo continuous modification, only major prototypes will be discussed. Invariably these schools were built in factory-like manner: minimum cost with maximum output at shortest time. So schools built in the same time period usually share identical factory-like design and structure, often disregarding the topography or other physical conditions. Worst still, the schools were built for users, not through consultation with the users. No consultation was made with teachers, headmasters, the school-running bodies, or other stakeholders. According to a retired senior official in the school building section of the Education Department, as a rule, the school-running bodies did not know which school premise had been assigned to them until the construction work was completed.

In addition to documentary analysis and archive searching, data was gathered through interviews with some key officials in the Education Department and Architecture Department involved in designing schools.

Historical background

After the defeat of the Japanese in the Second World War, the British resumed her control over Hong Kong at a time when colonialism was declining rapidly. Added to the challenges from anti-imperialism, the British in Hong Kong were also confronted by the Communism when Mao Tse-tung took control of Mainland China.

Part of the British reconstruction plan in Hong Kong was the provision of education as detailed by the seven-year plan outlined in the 1951 Fisher Report (Director of Education: Annual Departmental Reports, 1952-53). During this 1950s post war period, a number of high-quality and standardized government primary schools were built for the local Chinese pupils. The quality of these government primary schools built in the 50s was never again matched until the end of the British rule. The number of these schools was small because they were built not for the mass but for the elite. They existed as exemplars to show the superiority of the British Hong Kong government, not for emulation by other school-running bodies of the day. (The British people, who comprise less than 5% of the population, had maintained a separate system.)

Hong Kong had faced enormous population growth after 1949. This was caused by the influx of so the called "refugees" from Communist Mainland China and the subsequent high birth rate. Sweeting (1991) compares Hong Kong society to a "wok" (Chinese frying pan) rather than a melting pot in that "various separate ingredients are rapidly and briefly stir-fried in a very heated and high-pressured atmosphere (p.65). And education is one of such examples. Roughly speaking, from 1950 to 2000, the population in Hong Kong grows at a rate of a million in ten years. That is equivalent to adding a new medium-size town a year in Hong Kong.

At first the post war Hong Kong colonial government retained its pre-war passive, laissez-faire and elitist education policy. Through its education system, it aimed at producing officials to serve in the colonial government. Such policy was criticized as producing "senior-class Chinese":

The transient nature of the Hong Kong population has often been used as an excuse by the government to avoid long-term planning in education. It was also initially used to justify the non-provision of education services for the waves of immigrants arriving in Hong Kong in the late 1940s and

early 1950s (Sweeting 1991, p.68). Thus while the British Education Act of 1870 had placed the responsibility of universal basic education on the government in Britain, it took more than a century time to do the same in her colony in Hong Kong. It was not until the publication of the White paper on Educational Policy in 1965 (Education Policy, 1965) that the British colonial government announced the provision of universal primary education in Hong Kong. To accommodate the enormous increase of population, especially the children, schools of different sorts were built. Since 1950s, the public schools in Hong Kong have been built, on average, at a rate of one school per week, according to a retired official. Invariably schools were built according the current standardized design. Since 1945, six basic designs or prototypes have been identified. These include the following configurations:

1. The “U-shape” government directly run primary schools: 1950s

Prior to the mid-50s, schools in Hong Kong were developed by religious and charitable organizations, both from local and overseas, with no design input from the government. According to a retired official, the British colonial government granted land to the school running bodies. It was up to these school running bodies design their own schools. Thus, many of these primary schools were designed in British, American, or Italian styles.

In 1951, the Fisher Report recommended a Ten Year Plan in education and recommended to build five new government primary schools each year. The design and structure of these primary schools were of top standard, comparable to those built in the U.K, according to a retired senior official in the Education Department. There were twenty-four classrooms and special rooms for music, woodwork, domestic science, and medical. Arranged in open “U-shape”, there is a basketball court in the middle. A garden and a small garage were also provided. The rooftop and the ground floor provided additional space for physical education lessons. The visual, acoustic, aesthetic, and thermal environments were of top qualities with equipment imported from the U.K, the retired official said.

The teachers in these government-directly-run schools were civil servants. They were fully trained graduates from the local teacher training colleges. Their pay was substantially

above their counterparts in other government-subsidized schools.

2. The rooftop schools: 1950s

Though the Fisher Report in 1951 recommended a Ten Year Plan in education and recommended the building of five new government primary schools each year, the influx of refugees soon overwhelmed the plan. In 1954, the British colonial government admitted “it would be impossible to provide the schools under the normal development programme” (Director of Education, Annual Departmental Reports, 1953-54, 1954, p.7). With the advent of mass public housing development following the 1953 squatter fires, the government began to play more active role in educational provisions. Instead of building more than fifty standard primary schools to meet the pressing needs of the population, the government made use of the spare spaces in her public housing program to build “rooftop” schools there.

The huge Hong Kong public housing program came into being after the 1953 Shek Kip Mei Fire, which left sixty thousand people homeless. The rooftop and in some cases the ground floor of these “resettlement estates” were converted into primary schools.

“It was decided that the necessary schools could be provided most economically under the Subsidy Code with reputable private bodies...Schools, each of 6 classrooms and accommodating about 500 children in two sessions, have now been opened in the resettlement areas at King’s Park, Tung Tau Tusen and Ngan Tau Kok...” (Director of Education, Annual Departmental Reports, 1953-54, 1954, p.7).

These rooftop schools were the “most economical” (Director of Education, Annual Departmental Reports, 1953-54, 1954). Usually each rooftop school contained 6 to 8 classrooms admitting 500 to 650 children in two sessions, one in morning and another in the afternoon. In some cases, a third session was held in late afternoon too. In addition, some private primary schools were allowed inside private residential apartment buildings

In a typical “rooftop” school, there were six classrooms, three at each end of the roof leaving the space in the middle open. Some resident units on the adjacent floors were

converted into school staff rooms and general office. No special room was available for music, arts, or craft lessons. For these schools, there were no courtyard, assembly hall, medical room, kitchen, cafeteria, nor gymnasium. The teaching equipments amounted to no more than chalk and board. The classrooms were un-decorated and were barely furnished. In these schools, while the visual environment was barely satisfactory according to Chan's (1996) framework, the other three environments, namely the acoustical, aesthetic, and the thermal, were poor. It was not uncommon for children to hear what the teachers in other classes were teaching. In summer, the rooftop classrooms were particularly hot.

In these schools, the teachers were poorly paid and most of them were untrained. Clearly, these schools had been "built" for the refugees' children. In fact, they functioned more like "refugee" camps detaining children and keeping them away from communist influences rather than a place to nurture and educate future citizens. The government admitted to the problem of malnutrition among these pupils but no measure was devised to address the problem (Hong Kong Government, 1965). Apart from learning some basic literacy and numeracy, people did not expect these rooftop students to be promoted to the secondary education. In fact, according to the Ten-Years Plan on Primary Education in 1954, only 15% primary school graduates got a place either in the government or subsidized secondary schools (Sweeting 1991).

To many parents, these rooftop primary schools were like the hatching cubicles in the farms. At the completion of a rooftop education these children would be sent away to the factories once they were physically strong or old enough. Apart from a lucky few, most graduates in these schools terminated their study at primary 6 at the age of about twelve years. Without any prospect of further education, academic work was not a serious consideration for the teachers, the parents, and the students alike. Thus the rooftop schools represented the government's ad hoc attempt in providing temporary or transitional primary education for a menial world of work. It took a while for the British colonial government to recognize and accept the fact that the children and their refugee parents were "citizens" of Hong Kong and to accord them the right to proper education.

So in 1950s Hong Kong, the British colonial government constructed the glamorous government primary schools on one side, the shabby rooftop schools (all of them were

government-subsidized) were also produced in mass. Unfortunately, it was the shabby rooftop schools, not the glamorous government primary schools, which provided the great majority of primary school places.

The rooftop schools in the 1950s set a pattern for decades to come relating to building primary schools: building primary schools was not an idiosyncratic and independent adventure. It was a standardized factory-type mass production and was the by-product of the massive low-cost public housing programme. Also the school premise would be barely equipped but temporarily fully utilized through bi-sessional, and in some cases, tri-sessional structure. Until today, six years after the coming of the new government, converting all bi-sessional primary schools into whole-day primary school is still a remote ideal. Finally, the primary school designers and primary school users had little meaningful communication and the school design input from the latter was minimal.

3. The matchbox estate primary schools: mid-60s

In 1965, the government published the White Paper announcing the provision of six years free primary education to all Hong Kong children. Accordingly, the matchbox estate primary schools were built along with the massive public low-cost housing construction. The twenty-four-classroom school was a six-story single block attached to the nearby public housing development. On each floor, there was a central corridor and three classrooms on each side. Designed without any acoustic consideration, pupils could easily hear what were going on in adjacent classrooms. The central hallway was gloomy and narrow. Better than the barren rooftop schools, four extra rooms were provided for music, art and craft, library, and medical care. Similar to the previous rooftop stage, quantity, not quality was the top consideration. Thus, these schools were barely equipped, much like the early Ford model-T — a vehicle that can provide basic transportation but nothing more. The whole school was not decorated. Most classrooms were equipped with chalk and board only. Lighting was sufficient but aesthetics was not a consideration. The classrooms were poorly ventilated for the hot summer days typical of Hong Kong.

Like the rooftop schools, the goal of these matchbox schools was also to fuel Hong Kong factories with adequate

person power. Under the “pedagogy of the oppressed” (Freire, 1970, et al.), the whole curriculum was geared to preparing pupils for the Secondary School Entrance Examination (SSEE), in which students were tested on their knowledge in English, Chinese, and Mathematics for further education opportunity.

So the match-box school design was sufficient to meet the need of the day: No courtyard, garden, or even potted plant, was necessary to arouse pupils’ interest in the nature; no laboratory of any kind was needed for conducting scientific exploration; no gymnasium was needed for pupils’ physical training; no library was needed, for the few textbooks were enough; no school hall was needed for any school-wide activity; and no technical workshops or home-economics rooms were needed to meet the pupils’ vocational need. The music room was barely equipped, and the teaching aids for other subjects were scant or non-existent. Each classroom was fully packed with an excess of forty-five pupils (Hong Kong Government, 1965). The staff rooms were too congested to leave space for any meaningful communication between the teachers and their pupils. Finally the bi-sessional operation of the school premises left no opportunities for schools to organize any extra-curricular activities after school. So in short, the exam-oriented, elitist approach in primary education leave the social, emotional, aesthetical, physical, vocational needs of the pupils neglected in these match-box type estate schools.

At any rate, the matchbox estate primary schools reconfirmed the previous practice that building primary schools was a by-product of the massive low-cost public housing development. Instead of converting the rooftops into schools, the primary schools and the low-cost housing were built simultaneously. Instead of an ad hoc measure, the primary schools were systematically built. Unfortunately, the schools were built to meet the minimum educational needs of the day, not the holistic needs of the children in the future.

4. The stand-alone estate schools: Mid-70s

In mid-70s, the stand-alone estate school came into being. It was still a multi-story single block in match-box shape with 24 classrooms. Later when the demand for school places increased, the ground floor was converted from covered playground into classrooms, making a total of 30 classes crowded in a single block. The bi-sessional structure

aggravated the congestions. Compared with the previous rooftop and match-box models, the stand-alone school size was a bit bigger and with better interior furnishing. For instance, the cement floor was covered with tiles and classrooms walls were painted. The school premise was detached from other public housing premises. Instead of a central corridor with classrooms on both sides, there were six classrooms in a row on each floor. These schools were better furnished. There was an assembly hall on the second floor, which also served as the gymnasium for the Physical Education lessons. A small medical room, a conference room, and a storage room were available. The number of pupils in each class was reduced first from forty-five to forty and then to thirty-five. For the schools that adopted the Activity Approach, similar to the progressive education in the West, the class size was reduced to 30. However, the school had to share the playground with the nearby residents for the Physical Education lessons. With the provision of universal nine-year compulsory education in 1978, the mass-oriented education was replacing the former elite-oriented one.

However, the Hong Kong primary school designs of the 1970s still reflected the deficient concept of education. The school was no more than a solid block structure. The rigid structural classroom design allowed no flexible use of the floor space and troubles always popped up with residence nearby when using the playground. Without the provision of garden or laboratory and other structural impediments, learning activities other than those didactic ones were difficult to organized

Like the schools in matchbox and rooftop settings, the concept of education focused on mastery of traditional school subjects through traditional teaching methodologies, particularly textbook learning. The teacher-student ratio was still high. Beside the bi-sessional structure, the layout, facilities, and equipments of the school did not facilitate teaching strategies other than “chalk and talk.” Project work, group discussions, experiments, or role-play were difficult to arrange in such classroom, not to mention the organization of extra-curricular activities, guidance and counseling, remedial classes or home-school cooperation for the students after school. Education was still conducted through the factory model and teaching was no more than transmitting knowledge from the textbooks to the students in class. Individual differences were ignored. The aims of education still biased

towards the rote learning, although the child-centered approach was loudly promoted after the setting up of the Curriculum Development Council. During this stand-alone estate school era in Hong Kong, the physical, social, moral, and aesthetical developments of the children were no more than rhetoric to the government. The various curriculum reforms initiated by the setting up of Curriculum Development Council in 1972 were difficult, if not impossible, to implement in these schools (Chung, 1996).

5. The flexi-type schools: 1980s-1990s

The "flexi-design" came into being in early 1980s. Hong Kong population statistics at that time revealed that the demand for primary school places would soon be taken over by the demands for secondary places when the population cohort moved up the pyramid. Consequently a new standard was developed known as the "flexi-design" which allowed primary schools to be quickly and economically converted into secondary schools, according to the retired official. For the first time, the space and size of a primary school premise is comparable to a secondary school. The traditional single block match-box like design was replaced by three blocks arranged in "U" shape" or "L" shape. In addition to thirty standard classrooms, there were four special rooms, three preparation offices, and three remedial teaching rooms. After 1997 when the new government spent more money in basic education, these rooms were retrofitted into supportive rooms, education rooms, music room, art & craft room, general studies room, multi-purpose room, computer-assisted learning room, language room, and even a library, according to the retired official..

For the first time, since the 1950s when the government primary schools were first built in Hong Kong, the government provided a truly self-contained modern primary school, a school having its independent school building, a school campus, and an open playground. Most important of all, whole-day schooling replaces bi-sessional schooling. Only such school design lives up to the affluence of the Hong Kong economy. In fact, the initial government sponsored U-shaped primary schools built in the 50s were of modern standard. It is a pity that for three decades our children learned in defective rooftop, match-box and estate schools. Due to its flexi- and transitional nature, the primary school design still indicates the low status of primary education as compare with the

secondary education. Secondary education was and is regarded as more prestigious and thus could demand more space and larger campus. Rote learning in the form memorizing factual knowledge in the textbooks has long dominated the basic education. The ultimate valuable was not the child himself, but the academic subject knowledge as stated in the textbook. Such knowledge could be used as currency to be exchanged for a place in the university. In line with this concept, primary school teachers were mostly the graduates from the two-year diploma teacher education program in local college of education, not the three to four years degree level university education. The subject knowledge they gained in the college of education was sufficient for them to teach in the primary school, because education was regarded as no more than transmitting the subject knowledge from textbook into the pupils' mind.

6. The millennium schools

With the end of British colonialism in Hong Kong, the return of the sovereignty of Hong Kong to China, and the coming of the information age, the new government reverted the colonial policy of placing top priority on tertiary education. Primary education received much greater attention. Apart from deleting the colonial influences in the school syllabus, the new government ambitiously provided brand new curriculum to the children. In proposing the "Learning to learn" curriculum reform in the first decade of the new millennium, the government aims at producing adequate personpower for the information age. This is important as the Hong Kong economy has been undergoing restructuring from secondary production to tertiary production. Education at all level, including the teacher education, should meet these challenges and the importance of primary education is recognized and accorded comparable resources with secondary education. The changing primary school design reflects such change.

In any case, to cope with the changing world and the subsequent changes in curriculum, primary education now receives its overdue share of attention from the new Hong Kong government. For the first time, the physical space provided for primary school is almost equal to that of the secondary school. Primary education now has equal footing with the secondary education and is no longer viewed as being junior and thus inferior. The Y2k schools are bigger than all the previous models. The three-block premise could be

arranged in different shapes and primary schools were built according to the suggested needs of the stakeholders. Thus, for the first time, primary schools will not be built to look identical to each other. They are allowed different shapes and different colors. More special rooms are provided including computer learning rooms, computer preparation rooms, language laboratories, conference rooms, multi-functional rooms, and discipline master offices.

Also, for the first time, the users of the school are involved in the design process and they do not need to contribute any money for the construction. In the British colonial days, the aided schools which were largely run by religious and charity bodies were asked to contribute a certain portion of construction cost. The rate was about fifty percent during the era of rooftop schools. It was reduced to 10 % for the stand-alone schools. In any case, the stakeholders had no right to make any structural or non-structural changes to the school premise, no matter how minor they were, before moving in. In fact, the school stakeholders would not be informed of the particular school building even being granted until the last moment. Since the return of Hong Kong in 1997, the government now shoulders all capital expenditures related to school construction. Now, according to the government's Chief Architect, the government notifies the school running body regarding the school they will receive before construction begins. The school body then has time to make suggestions on the design of the school.

Conclusions:

Different school design philosophies reflect the differences in the ownership of sovereignty. For instance, in North America, "our planners saw childhood as a period of life in which learning, and the joy it affords, is a central goal" (Hebert, 1998, p.69). The Americans' fundamental design philosophy, "child development as a personal quest" (Ibid.), does not find its counterpart sprouting in Hong Kong until the end of the colonial era, as demonstrated in the designs in this study. This study on the designs of primary schools in Hong Kong reflects that:

1. Both the British colonial and the new Hong Kong government placed great emphasis on education. The former stressed on the control of the provision of education

because of her low legitimacy in the eyes of Britain. Education existed to serve the running of the colonial government. Thus university education, not primary education, received much greater attention. Investment in basic education was minimum as reflected by the different types of school buildings. The colonial government aimed at meeting the minimum expectation of the population with the provision of lowest cost primary education. Thus it was quantity and education of the masses, not quality of education that counted. Thus, the bi-sessional rooftop primary schools built in the mid-1950s signified the shift of the British colonial government's change of policy from building exemplary primary schools for the elite to building low-cost primary school for the masses. Such policy did not change until the last days in the British colonial rule. At any rate, given the growth of local economy and the rising standard of living, this study illustrates well that the designs of primary schools have been undergoing successive improvements during the second half of the last century.

2. In Hong Kong, the building of primary schools was not an independent or idiosyncratic project. In line with the socio-economic development, the construction work itself was a by-product of the massive low-cost housing program. The primary schools and the low-cost housing were built simultaneously. No matter in terms of outlook appearance or internal facilities, these estate primary schools reflect its low status with the adjacent low-cost public housing.
3. The low status of primary education during the British colonial days was also reflected in the provision of teacher education. From the 1960s onward, a degree was a standard for any primary school teacher in Britain and in America. But in Hong Kong, it was not until 1992 that the British colonial government proposed the setting up of the Hong Kong Institute of Education. By combining all the existing teacher-training colleges at the Hong Kong Institute of Education, all teacher education programs could be gradually upgraded to degree level. After the return of Hong Kong, the new government was quick to announce the target of the provision of an all-trained and all-graduated primary teaching profession.
4. In school facility planning, there is a reinforcement of the saying that "Function dictates the form" (Chan, 1996, p. 14). The rooftop and estate schools represented the

technical rationality in the government design of primary school. The early designs stressed maximum output at minimum cost without due consideration to the type or quality of education provided. Standardization and centralized British colonial government control were the means. The decision-making was autocratic. Lack of communication between the designers and the users of primary schools was one-way in which conformity and compliance were the rule. Such rationality was successful in providing sufficient places in time to accommodate the gigantic increase of children and no child was left without a school place. Economically and financially such mentality proved to be efficient. However, without meaningful input from the schoolteachers, students, parents, scholars and other stakeholders in education, the designs of these school buildings, particularly those earlier types, leave much to be desired. Such mentality also reflects the relationship between the rulers and the ruled under the colonial government. Only under the new government does the school design bears some features of the Information Age. Such features include: customization, cooperative relationships between the designers and the users and the latter can share some decision-making. It also reflects the changing relationships between the government and the school-running bodies.

5. The rooftop and estate type schools buildings promoted "from chalk to talk" rote learning, making teaching a mere process of transmitting subject matter knowledge to the children. Without the provision of adequate space, facilities and teacher training, the rooftop and estate schools became authoritarian in operation. Such rationality stresses mastery of traditional school subjects through traditional rote learning. The intellectual education in the form of memorization of factual knowledge was stressed at the expense of social, physical, aesthetical, and moral development of the school children. For the flexi-type and Y2K schools, attempts have been made to promote child-centered education. Instead of transmission, education is viewed as transaction (Miller & Seller, 1990), a dialogue between the pupils and the curriculum in which the pupils reconstruct knowledge through the dialogue process. It stresses on communication, conceptualizing, problem solving and inferring.

6. The unsatisfactory primary school design may not necessarily reflect the "evil" nature of the colonial government. Rather it was a result of bureaucratic structure in education. In the U.K. or in America, the local education boards run many schools and the schools are funded by the local rate. Thus, the school design can readily meet the expectation of the school users. In Hong Kong, the top-down hierarchical bureaucratic structure impedes harmfully the meaningful communication between the designers/builders and the school users, particularly during the colonial era.
7. Recently, the concept of primary education has been changed. A number of measure have been taken to make primary education comparable to the secondary school education. These include expanding the school size of primary school comparable to the secondary school, upgrading the primary teaching profession to all-trained and all-graduate as in the secondary school, the elimination of bi-sessional structure and so on. The status of primary education is no longer viewed as an inferior to the secondary education.

To remedy the deficiencies in the old models, the rooftops schools were phasing out during the late 1960s. Similarly, many match-box estate schools attached to public housing have been demolished. For the rest, including the stand-alone estate schools, new teaching blocks were constructed and attached to existing blocks. In addition, more facilities and equipments were provided such as computer room and language room. Finally, the new Hong Kong government has determined that by the year 2007 all bi-sessional primary schools programs will be replaced by whole-day programs.

In years to come, new schools will continue to be designed in Hong Kong. Of particular interest is the idea of building school villages. While the trend in the past has been to construct bigger and bigger schools, is it now the right time to think differently? Can "Small is beautiful" be applied to Hong Kong?

At any rate, the rc-constructed and the newly built schools provide good groundwork for Hong Kong education in the Information Age. The efforts of various stakeholders, particularly the teachers, hopefully should determine the full utility of Hong Kong schools.

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校本評估在香港的發展

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根據七號報告書的建議，教育署於成立了質素保證視學組後，標誌了香港學校教育的評估踏進一個新階段。九七以前，香港政府並沒有建立一個機制去評估公辦學校的表現。就學校教育的評估，本港學者鄭燕祥曾指出教育質素指標就是描述學校的輸入、過程及產出方面的質素指標。但除了關注中央性指標外，亦有國際學者注視校本評估的重要性。故此，教育署亦鼓勵各學校進行校本自我評估，質素保證組於零零年發出一份學校自我評估資料冊，期大力推動本港學校的校本評估。而這篇文章的重心則在回顧校本評估的發展，引用一間曾受評鑑的學校同工的回應，探討香港學校校本評估的前景。

The Development of School-based Evaluation in Hong Kong

In order to pursue quality education in school, the Education Department set up the quality assurance framework for school education in 1997. This framework aims to achieve the due balance between providing support to school through school improvement and exerting pressure through accountability within this framework. External review on the performance of school is taken up by the Quality Assurance Inspection teams from Education Department and each school should carry out her self-evaluation. As part of school-based management, each school is engaged in on-going review of her strengths and weaknesses. This paper aims to discuss the development of school-based evaluation in Hong Kong by reviewing of related government policy papers and a case of an evaluated school.

背景

根據教育統籌委員會第七號報告書的建議，教育署於九七年成立了質素保證視學組，標誌了香港學校教育的評估踏進一個新階段。在這以前，香港政府並沒有建立一個機制去評估公辦學校的表現，而只有提倡校本管理去改善學校的教育。早於九一年，教育統籌科和教育署為了改善香港中小學教育質素的體制，聯合發表了《學校管理新措施》報告書，當中不單批評了那時候的學校管理狀況，更指出：由於缺乏適當的管理架構和程序，有些校長無須對自己的作為負責，並視出任校長為在校內獨斷獨行的機會，儼如『小皇帝』（頁 13）；並在報告書內引用美國和澳洲高效能學校的特點，期透過推動學校管理新措施以鼓勵本港學校自我完善。但正如彭新強(1997)的分析約有 85% 的津貼小學及 80% 的津貼中學決定保持現狀不進行改革，從客觀的角度或從政策層面來檢證，此管理改革並不能在短期內成功(頁 33)。

為此，教育統籌委員會對教育水準繼續作出專門的研究，其轄下的教育準工作小組於 94 年發表了以《學校教育質素》為題的報告書，提出了一套保證及提高學校教育素質的綜合策略。當中指出在教育體系中，管理素質和保持質素的方法比控制質素的方法更為可取，並建議採用綜合質素探訪去協助學校的改善，其功能有四：(1) 就學校對本身優點和弱點的自行評估，以及學校的改善質素計劃和工作的實效，進行獨立的校外評審。(2) 在探訪後撰寫一份公正的詳盡書面報告，作為學校和保證質素機構在 12 至 18 個月進行檢討的基礎。(3) 根據探訪時蒐集的資料，可以找出改善質素過程的有效和效果不佳的方法。(4) 可以根據探訪時蒐集的資料，輔以其他來源的學校質素，定期編寫和發表有關學校教育質素的總結報告，供政府、立法機關、教育工作者和廣大市民參考。而在這個報告的基礎上，教統會經過兩年多的諮詢和修改，終於在九七年九月訂定了第七號報告書，當中建議設立質素保證視學機制。

有關學校教育的評估，本港學者對此有深入研究，

當中鄭燕祥(1994)曾指出評估教育的質素，有賴不同指標提供教育系統不同表現的資料，而教育質素指標就是描述學校層面的輸入、過程及產出主要方面的質素指標。而這一套觀念亦正是本港學校教育評估的主流觀點，也就是說本港教育界早年在學校教育的評估方面是較多地關注中央性指標的制訂和應用，但這是否學校教育評估的唯一方向呢？Aspin 等(1994)在其著作《Quality Schooling》中論述學校質素的評估時指出是有兩種取向的，其一是由中央決定質素控制，作為最有效的方法去保證學校的質素，而另一種取向則認為在維持平等與質素的前題下，將教育高度專業自主視為不可缺少的一個因素。故此要讓香港學校的教育評估能有成熟的發展，除了依靠中央建立一套評估學校質素的指標外，亦需鼓勵各學校進行校本自我評估，以求改善不同學校的教育質素。而在經過三年的實踐，教育署質素保證組於零零年發出一份學校自我評估資料冊，以期大力推動本港學校的校本評估。而這篇文章的重心則在回顧校本評估的發展，引用一間曾受評鑑的學校同工的回應，探討香港學校校本評估的前景。

質素保證

教統會七號報告書(1997)為推動優質學校教育提出設立質素保證視學機制，並指出教育署採用總體視學的模式，可引入公開和具透明度的質素保證視學，派出綜合的視學隊伍到學校作整體視察。在視學時可找出各校的優點和改善的地方，並可建議改善措施和採取適當的行動，幫助表現欠佳的學校。整個視學過程包括學校自我評估，教育署在教師和其他教育專業人士組成專家小組的協助下，到學校進行總體視學，在視學後給予學校所需協助，以及外界對教育署的視學程序和工作進行定期評估。及後教育署質素保證視學組(1997)在其《視學手冊》中寫出質素保證架構的目的，一方面是支援學校改善質素，另一方面是藉監察給予學校壓力，使它們承擔問責，並在這兩方面取得平衡(頁2)。而相類近的質素保證機制，在加拿大已推行了廿餘年了。在當地學校質量認證是一個內外外部評估的有機組合，內部評估由校長負責，但要儘可能包括學校利益相關的各方面人士，諸於家長、社區代表、學校教師、管理人員和教輔人員，自我評估報告分為四個部分，即：(1)學校發展計劃、(2)學校的強項弱項分析、(3)認證相關指標、(4)學校質量認證材料及証據(洪成文，2001，頁55)。至於在香港，質素保證視學組透過多年的實踐，提出一個包含

了學校自我評估及質素保證視學的架構，並建議從(1) 管理及組織、(2) 教與學、(3) 校風及給予學生的支援及(4) 學業及學業以外的表現等範疇，對學校的表現作出量度。根據質素保證視學九八至九九年度的報告，質素保證有以下兩個重要的發展：(1)參考過往的視學經驗和所得意見，修訂及簡化質素保證視學程序，以提高工作效率。(2)委派本地及海外專家，於零二年至零三學年為質素保證視學的推行作一次整體評估和檢討，以確保質素保證過程的適切性，以及測定香港學校表現所達致的國際水平(1999，頁1)。當中第一點是接受受訪學校的意見的，而第二點則有待深入討論。正如Gorard(2001)在文章的總結中指出一個地方學校系統的效能或標準並不可以用一個簡單的核數和比較去處理，在國際性學校效能的比較中只有很少具體的証據可讓政策者去借用，而當信度及效度的問題因受制於時空及不同國家的實況而受質疑時，這令此等國際教育效能的比較變得更為複雜(頁294)。

在最新的一份質素保證視學周年報告(2000)中則提出以下兩點：(1)九九至零零學年的主要視學結果顯示，在四個視學範疇中，學校在校風及給予學生的支援範疇的表現最好，而在教與學範疇的表現則相對較弱。(2)在管理及組織範疇的多個範圍中，學校在資源調配方面的表現最佳，而自我評估仍是學校最弱的一環(教育署，2000b，頁96)。從這報告中，可見質素保證視學明確了本港學校在教與學範疇表現的不足，要推動香港學校的自我完善，就必須要引領學校好好處理教與學，正如Datnow & Castellano(2001)提出以成功的領導模式去管理及帶領一所學校的改革，當中學校校長和教師不需要重建角色，而是要校長去關心學校的教與學，將學校行政聚焦於學校改革(P.244-245)。

校本評估

此外，正如上述質素保證視學報告中，提出校本評估是學校在管理及組織範疇中較弱的一環，惟整個學校教育質素保證架構，必須要有學校自我評估與質素保證視學共同發展，以支持學校的改善與問責。正如教育統籌委員會(1994)指出：要成功地實行學校管理新措施所要求的改變，須由學校本身自發進行。來自外間的壓力是可以幫助學校確信有需要作出改變，及驅使它們接受隨改革而來的挑戰，可是，外力並非一個有效的方法帶引質素導向的改革。要決定學校是否符合這方面的先決條件，須憑專業判斷、對達到同一目標的不同方法能

夠採取包容態度，以及能夠欣賞由學校自行提出的新意念（頁46）。可見來自學校校內的評估可能比他人的評核對學校發展有更大的影響力，正如美國的 Stoll and Fink (1996)也曾清晰地指出：學校教育的改善對於每所學校是獨特的，因為每所學校擁有的環境是唯一的，也就是說不同的學校改善是有其與別不同的方法來達成的，並沒有一個建議藍圖可讓所有學校去實行教育改善；總言之，學校改善只能來自其內部而不能藉外在的指令而達成的（頁43）。而內地學者毛亞慶(2001)也指出校本管理強調達成目標有著許多不同的方法，學校依據於自身的條件，在開發教學目標、確定管理戰略、分配人力資源、解決實際問題和完成預定目標上擁有更多的自主權，只有當學校成為一個自我管理的組織時，它才盡可能主動去履行自己應負的責任（頁34）。在此可見校本評估與管理對學校的發展和改善是十分重要的。

有關學校自我評估教育署（2000a）在《學校自我評估》中曾下了一個定義：學校自我評估是質素保證的核心、達致學校自我完善的一項主要工作、學校發展計劃不同或缺的一部分及一個不斷進行的過程（頁2）。正如上文提及的視學結果顯示學校在自我評估方面的知識及表現均未如理想。為幫助學校改善，教育署已向學校提供有關學校自我評估架構的指引及參考資料，而學校發展主任亦會探訪學校，提供支援。此外，教育署也會繼續發展各種工具和參考標準，以協助學校自我評估（教育署，2000b，頁97）。而在落實校本評估時，最關鍵的是要改變教育管理決策的模式，過往很多學校管理者較著重於「計劃—規範模型」去作學校的決策，當中所體現的決策動力結構是被動型的，是以自上而下的控制為前提。而新的「可能—滿意模型」的教育管理決策則促使決策結構分散化，這使組織中的決策者必然增加，亦要求管理組織的動力結構從控制型轉化為自主型，賦予教育組織各級決策中心以應有的責任，讓他們擁有充分的決策自主權，以利於組織成員充分發揮各自的作用，調動廣大參與者的積極性，從而形成組織共同體。（孟繁華，2001，頁82-83）

學校實踐

為了了解學校在質素保證視學與校本評估的實況，研究員特意於2000年底就東華三院姚達之紀念小學作個案研究，透過與該校校長、主任、教師和家長作深入訪談，了解該校在質素保證視學和學校自我評估的經驗。九八至九九年度該校參加了質素保證視學，正如該校校

長的回顧：當時的感覺好像被人審一樣，放了學也要被人問個多兩個小時，天天如是，令他感到心理壓力很大，而老師方面，教學氣氛緊張，壓力也是很大，但是透過這個視學，除卻可以看到自己學校被人欣賞之處外，也讓全校師生家長更加關心學校。正如一位主任提出：校風方面的評價不錯，他們認為我們的小朋友幾純樸，也熱愛學校，很喜歡留在學校，常常和老師溝通。在視學中，視學者看到學校每組每年都有工作計劃，但之後卻沒有跟進其實施情況，故要求學校同工要多些注意。故此從那次視學後，學校各組會先就各項工作進行檢討，才考慮如何訂立下一年的工作計劃。此外，正如一學生家長回憶視學時指出：那個視學官開始就很羨慕家長及老師有好的聯絡，使家長能清楚學校的運作。這反映出視學後對學校發展有多方面的肯定和促進作用，故此，未視學的學校，不必抱太負面的態度去看待質素保證視學。

在視學之後，該校提交了一份跟進計劃，在該跟進計劃中該校會從四個方面作出跟進，當中包括了一位教師在訪談中提出要改善級與級之間的聯繫不足，要在日後多開級會或召集級長把訊息發放到其他的老師。至於校本自我評估機制方面，有一位主任回想，質素保證視學組指出學校要按校務計劃跟進工作或檢討工作，所以自此之後該校同工在行政會議及科會議上也提出要多些跟進及檢討。從這個案例中，可見質素保證視學確實可對校本管理和校本評估產生積極的作用。正如Davies & Ellison(2001)提出要透過組織的學習去建設學校的未來，在過程中相關的持份者能透過互動，分享到學校的發展的目標與核心價值(P.85)。只要學校教育工作者能以學習者的心態去面對質素保證視學及校本評估，有關的視學及自評活動並不是洪水猛獸，反而能促進學校的凝聚與發展。

總結

香港學校的校本評估不知不覺間已發展了十年，當中教統會第七號報告書的發表，大大推動了校本管理的發展；而質素保證視學組的成立，則有助建構中央性評估架構，餘下來的重點是校本評估的發展。正如教育統籌委員會（2000）在教改報告書指出：教育改革的大前提，不但是為學生創造空間，亦是為學校和教師創造空間，但在尊重教育工作者的專業自主的同時，政府亦必須面向公眾，所以政府有責任實施有效的機制，確保學校有足夠的透明度和問責性，及推行有效的質素保證機

制(頁37)。可見繼續推行校本管理，對本港教育質素和教育改革都有明顯的影響。在推動學校問責與完善時，一定要避免只由中央決定質素控制，而要將教育專業自主視為不可缺少的一個因素，平衡中央評估架構及校本評估的需要，這對本港學校的發展是十分重要的。最後，為了達致學校改善和問責，邁向優質學校教育，香港學校教育應考慮加入永續經營的概念。正如台灣學者黃乃熒(2000)指出：學校行政永續經營的理念，以歷史意識為本，強調透過主體意識的統整以連接進步，進而開展進步的持續性(頁13)。這種永續經營的理念，在本港校本評估的發展中，似乎有所欠缺，而當中所提的尊重學校個體歷史和其與社群的關連，將有益於各校實踐校本評估。這是值得本港學校參考和學習的。

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「商用中文」學期課程的設計與教學

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本文介紹自1991年起於香港中文大學中文系開設的「商用中文」課程。討論範圍包括課程設計、課程內容、課程的試驗與實踐、評估與建議等。有興趣教授或開設此類課程者可作參考。

Design and Teaching of a Commercial Chinese Course

This article introduces the establishment of curriculum of Business Chinese, a term course offered in The Chinese University of Hong Kong from 1991. The discussion covered the curriculum design, curriculum content, curriculum tryout, implementation, evaluation and suggestion. Those who are interested in teaching or building up such a course may take this for reference.

緒言

課程改革與課程設置

香港中文大學從1991年起被迫把四年制改為靈活學分制，實即三年制。教學時間大幅度縮短，嚴重影響主副修科目的教學，因此，一向被醫、理、社、商、工師生視為「閒科」的大學國文和大學英語課程祇好廢除。但近年來學生的語文水平卻遠遠不如往昔精英時代的畢業生，有關學系乃利用現有的資源開辦語文選修課程，算是一種補救。

配合生計教育

鍾啟泉說美國在70年代開始發展生計教育(Career Education)。(鍾啟泉1989:453)其實早在1924年，Bobbitt就提出，教育目標和標準不應由教師和教育家決定，而應由商務人士(businessmen)決定。(Bobbitt, 1924; Lawton, 1983:17)這種說法等於是商業人員決定課程論，可能有人不同意，但其優點是充分顧及社會需要，從實用的角度看是有意義的。因此，我提議開辦實用性語文科。

試辦與延續

課程推行往往受時間制約，(McBeath, 1997:37-55)包括須配合推行時間、調整授課時間等因素。由「大學語文」轉變為各種選修的實用中文科，目標固然不同，教學方法也必然有些不同，因此，當時有些同事頗有戒心，遲遲未作決定。但事情總需有個開端，我率先做個試驗，於1991年度開辦「商用中文」一科，屬三學分的學期課程，對象是中文系以外各年級的學生，容許自由選修。當時，中文系決定把這個科目的課程設計和教學都交給我處理。

第一期開辦，反應不錯，效果也不錯。第二期把課程進一步修訂，選修的同學更多。從第三期起移交給一位同事任教，並把手頭資料全部借出供其參考。這位同事接手以後因應自己的看法和需要，把課程做了一些調整。自第四期起，「商用中文」科開設多組，由多位教師任教。嗣後之課程設計乃彙集各教者之教學大綱而修訂。而「商用中文」開辦的班(組)數目則越來越多，課程維持到現在，已超過十年(1991-2002)。

本文討論範圍

本文主要解釋該科課程之設計目的、設計經過和課程內容，並介紹初期教學情況，其中涉及大課、導修和

習作等項目。本文同時也對該課程做了檢討。

課程設計

課程設計理念

克萊因(M. F. Klein)在討論課程設計時說，「課程設計是指擬定一門課程的組織形式和組織結構。它取決於兩種不同層次的課程編制的決策。廣義的層次包括基本的價值選擇；具體的層次包括技術上的安排和課程要素的實施。」從歷史上看，有三種基本的材料依據已被人們用來作為進行課程決策的選擇基礎。它們分別為有組織的學科內容，接受課程的學生以及社會（泰勒 Tyler, 1950）。」（Klein, 1985）

就上述理據考慮，在廣義層次上我們選擇傾向於實用的、生計的價值結構；而具體層次，則調查一般大學畢業生謀生時所需具備的種種商業應用文項目和寫作技能去製訂教學內容。至於三種基本材料，即有組織的學科內容作為材料依據、以學生作為材料依據、以社會作為材料依據，並非必須平行實施，而是可以以其中一項為重心，盡可能利用其他兩方面配合的。我們在最初階段是以「有組織的學科內容作為材料依據」，結果仍然覺得主題不突出，系統不連貫，因此第二期開始即改為「以學生作為材料依據」，即一個學生走出社會創業所需應用的中文，以此內容作為課程組織重心。

第一期課程的藍本

這裡應該交代一下，在八十年代後期，我曾經以兼課形式在香港城市理工學院夜校任教兩個科目，一科是「法律中文」，另一科即「商用中文」。「商用中文」總共十二星期，每星期上課一次，時間150分鐘，包括講解、導修和布置習作。整個課程有十一個項目，剛好應付十一課次，第十二星期是用於溫習、課程檢討和問卷。這個科目分開幾個小組，每組二三十人，由不同教師上課，科目統籌(Course Coordinator)是賴蘭香女士。賴女士是一個做事負責、備課認真而樂於助人的同事，十一個項目的教材基本上都由她準備好，並且複印分發給所有任教的同事。大家根據自己小組的需要稍作增刪。除賴女士外，各人的備課工作應當是比較輕鬆的。現在我要設計一個「商用中文」的新科目，其實可以照搬香港城市理工學院「商用中文」科的課程內容，可以使用舊材料，駕輕就熟，幾乎可以不必備課，教起來尤其可以得心應手。不過我不敢這樣做，一方面是不想因

循抄襲，毫無創意，二方面是我認為其中有些項目或需調整增刪，例如字典部首，「字體」（簡體、異體和錯別字）等項目可以改為放在課外輔導，還有因時代和環境變遷而牽涉的經濟、文化、法規等等也應盡可能納入課程設計的考慮範圍。故此，第一期課程的藍圖雖然主要參考城市理工學院的課程，實際上是已經做了相當程度的調整。而調整的方向基本上是「以學生作為材料依據」，選擇並增刪所需的項目施教。

課程目標

課程設計哲學傾向實用。第一期主要遵循下列方針：

- (a) 充分顧及實用性
- (b) 傾向香港生活環境

第一期課程結束，反覆檢討，如何可以做到更實用、更有系統？幾經考慮，聯繫克萊因(Klein, 1985)所介紹的泰勒三種基本材料說，第二期增加一個貫串全部項目的核心綱領：

- (c) 以個人或小企業商務發展或營運為主

根據以上三點要求，第二期的課程設計核心是假設一個走出校門不久的年青人被派往鄰近地區開設分店，從申請工作開始、派往深圳、租借店舖以至聘請人員等等，一直到他成為成功企業家所需的商務應用語文，包括書面語和口語表達。也許有人會說，成功了就有秘書代勞，企業家本身就不必弄這些了。話是這麼說，但是自己不注意，有時候會出現尷尬的情況。十多年前，我收到香港紅十字會名譽會長來函募捐，他署名的前端自稱「晚」，我嚇了一跳。這位先生其實是德高望重、年已花甲的大學校長，而我還是剛從大學校門出來的年青小子！可見他的秘書或擬稿者完全不懂文化風俗，校長大概因為事忙，拿個圖章讓人蓋，信件發出以前看也不看，老幼不分，因而造成尷尬。

課程內容

經過反覆推敲，第二期的課程大綱訂立如下：

- 一. 從申請工作開始
 - 1 求職信
 - 1 履歷表
- 二. 派往深圳開設分店
 - 1 市場調查：找鋪位
 - 2 向上司呈交之計劃書
 - 3 租鋪位及裝修合同
 - 4 聘請廣告
 - 5 聘約（工作合同）

三. 如何處理來往文件

- 1 中文電腦軟件應用原理（倚天及倉頡輸入法）
- 2 中文文書處理（慧星一號）
- 3 中文文件中阿拉伯數字和外文的寫法
- 4 檔案排列——四角號碼、拼音序列、筆畫（課外練習為主）

四. 準備開張

- 1 撰寫及發新聞稿
- 2 邀請貴賓剪彩之函件
- 3 開張酒會請柬

五. 推廣業務

- 1 商品說明及用法指示
- 2 介紹新產品
- 3 業務報告：書面、口頭
- 4 有獎遊戲規章設計
- 5 缺貨聲明/防偽冒聲明
- 6 宣傳信
- 7 訂貨與退貨
- 8 應付投訴信

六. 人事管理

- 1 通告
- 2 警告信
- 3 革職信
- 4 服務證明(testimonial)和推薦函(reference letter)
- 5 便條設計

七. 發達以後要應酬

- 1 賀辭
- 2 題辭
- 3 訃聞
- 4 對聯

八. 總結（內容總結、同學發問、課程檢討、問卷調查）

社會動態與補充材料

前面提到，因時代轉變，「商用中文」會牽涉到一些語文表達以外的問題。這裡且解釋一下。以前在報上刊登廣告，聘請一位電話女接線生，完全沒有問題，但現在不行，指明「女」接線生屬性別歧視。即使宗教機構聘請文員，如果聘請廣告裡寫明祇聘某教信徒，也可能牽涉宗教歧視，其他還有年齡歧視、種族歧視等。至於僱用合同要兼顧勞工法、人權法，例如勞工享有每年連續七天之有薪假期，不能以薪金代替假期，而每月發

薪日不應遲過該月七日，否則會被控告等等，在草擬合同時尤須注意。業務報告，尤其是公司業績報告，牽涉到公司法，虛假的財政報告有訛騙成份，要受刑事處分。有獎遊戲規章設計、宣傳信等涉及版權法，「人事管理」涉及私隱法，在深圳開業要熟悉中國法律和當地各種錯綜複雜的法律條文以外的規定等等。而第四項第1條「發新聞稿」，則須明瞭戰後新聞稿寫作基本上是用倒金字塔式（或稱倒三角式），即最重要的內容、段落放在最前面，最不重要的放在最後，戰時是害怕無線電通訊突然中斷，現在我們仍然這樣處理是因為報刊篇幅有限，免費的新聞稿他們視乎篇幅多少而可以隨意刪去後面一段或兩段。因此，講授「商用中文」實際上並不簡單，涉及的社會因素很多，絕不能關起門來杜撰。

要顧及上述情況，使學生從一開始就注意實際營商環境和生活條件，而又不花太多時間於解釋語文以外的問題，課堂上祇能扼要提點，並鼓勵學生閱覽參考書。以下是向學員推薦的一部分課外閱讀的參考書，包括香港和中國常見的應用文範式，法律文書，法規，工具書等：

陳志誠（1987, 1991）。《應用文基礎》，香港，昭明出版社。

馮式（1989）。《現代應用文手冊》，香港，中流出版社。
刊授大學（編）（1984, 1990）。《中國實用文體大全》，上海，上海文化出版社。

顏次青（1987）。《企業經濟合同與合同格式》，北京，中國經濟出版社。

師尼羅（1990）。《實用公文寫作指導與訓練》，北京，中國人事出版社。

馮廣珍（1991）。《270種應用文寫作方法》，重慶，重慶出版社。

寧致遠（1989）。《中國司法文書》，香港，香港文化教育出版社。

《中華人民共和國進出口關稅條例》（1992），香港，世界貿易圖書公司。

香港中文大學會計與財務系（1980）。《中譯會計與財務詞彙》，香港：香港中文大學出版社。

香港中文大學經濟系（1987）。《中譯經濟學詞彙》，香港：香港中文大學出版社。

語文出版社（1991）。《語言文字規範手冊》（增訂本），北京，語言文字出版社。

黃偉強（1986）。《市場調查指南》，香港，萬里書店。

顏伯勤（1985）。《廣告學》，台北，三民書局。

孫有為(1991)。《廣告學》，北京，世界知識出版社。

課程因革

根據《香港中文大學本科生手冊·二零零二至二零零三》(2002.6)所載，該年度「商用中文」的課程大綱是：

科目宗旨：本科旨在簡介常見商用文類之寫作原則，著重實例分析及練習，藉此提高學生之寫作能力。

科目大綱：(一) 通論：1.商用中文通論；及2.商用中文工具書簡介

(二) 選講項目：1.商務信函、備忘；
2.商用啟事、聲明、通告；3.商務會議文書；4.商業新聞稿；5.廣告文字；6.商品說明與用法指示；7.市場調查報告；8.商業合同、協議書；9.商用應酬文類

這個課程依然保存我所設計的第二期課程的面貌，祇是一些項目重新歸類和調動。不過，「科目宗旨」「藉此提高學生之寫作能力」卻會令人覺得奇怪，到底是針對一般語文能力，還是針對商業應用，教學目標似乎搖擺不定。

承蒙一位同事提供其前年之教學資料，即2000至2001年其講授「商用中文」的具體教學大綱如下：

- | | |
|--------|---|
| 一、通論 | 1.1 公文格式及用語
1.2 商務傳意技巧 |
| 二、招募員工 | 2.1 招聘廣告
2.2 聘約——工作合同 |
| 三、準備開張 | 3.1 開業(遷址)啟事
3.2 邀請嘉賓剪綵之函件
3.3 開業酒會請柬 |
| 四、召開會議 | 4.1 開會通告
4.2 會議紀錄
4.3 投票委託表格 |
| 五、推廣業務 | 5.1 聲明
5.2 宣傳信
5.3 廣告文字和香港廣告法規
5.4 商品說明及用法指南 |
| 六、貿易書信 | 6.1 建立聯繫
6.2 訂貨與退貨
6.3 追討信 |
| 七、業務調查 | 7.1 顧客意見問卷 |
| 八、業務報告 | 8.1 主席報告書 |
| 九、應酬文類 | 9.1 賀詞 / 題詞 |

十、中港經濟用語對比 / 內地財經新詞

十一、語文運用

大家比較一下，就會發現有些內容是當初沒有的，例如「追討信」、「顧客意見問卷」、「內地財經新詞」等，可見內容得因應時代發展而轉換。新加坡學者謝世涯透露，新加坡各大專院校自1993年開始即設置「商業華文」課程。(謝世涯1998)根據他提供的信息，新加坡這類課程顯然較偏重書面語表達，而我們則口頭和書面表達兼顧。

教學

課堂講解

大課主要用作剖析原理，包括分析寫作方法、語文知識、實用文結構原理等，提供理論和實例供同學明瞭。根據斯金納(Skinner, 1968)的理論，學習應輔以強化練習，因此，導修課及練習的作用是強化學生的知識和寫作能力。

每星期上大課一次，兩課時。課堂講解，首先是介紹這一項目的作用和使用範圍，派發該項文件的格式和範本，解釋格式和範本最需注意和最易犯錯的地方，以及相關的資料，例如文化、風俗、習慣和相關法規等，使學生對該類應用文有一個概括認識。以第七項第3節「訃文」為例，新加坡聯合早報上所見的訃告絕大部分是白話體，吉隆坡星洲日報所見則是文白夾雜體，香港基本上是淺白文言。而香港訃告中八十以上高齡而終則稱「笑喪」，「聞」字用紅色。報上偶然出現較舊式的訃文還有「杖期夫」、「不杖期夫」、「不孝男」等等字眼，這些都須稍作解釋，但應點到即止。隨後即告訴他們如何寫作這類文件，注意哪些步驟要點。最後是布置作業，書面的或口頭的，單幹的或小組的。

課堂導修

每星期上導修課一次，一課時，或隔一星期上導修課一次，每次兩課時，由導師和同學協商安排。當時的導修課由兩位擔任助教工作的博士研究生負責。學生在導修課必須參與討論，並在導師指導下完成較複雜的作業。不少內容較豐富而且較難掌握的項目，就安排在導修課繼續討論，並在課堂裡經集體討論動手完成作業。

課堂導修分小組進行，原則上採用合作學習法(Cooperative Learning)，(Dishon, D. & O'Leary, P. W., 1994; Kagan, 1990; Parker, 1985) 同時注意教

師輔導以及師生交流。

導修課的內容是活潑的，實用的。例如，派你往菲律賓考察快餐業務，（問題：世界各國的快餐店幾乎都由麥當奴和家鄉雞壟斷市場，菲律賓全國祇有六百間麥當奴，而祖樂比 Jolly Bee 快餐店卻有八百多間，過江龍不敵地頭蟲，為甚麼有此現象？）假如你回港需向公司上下報告，則出發前應做哪些準備工夫，考察時應注意哪些細節，報告應著重哪幾方面？又如，新公司選址，需注意哪些要素，開張前宣傳工作如何做，等等。導修課的好處是師生互動，同學互相交流，既動口又動手，可以個別寫作、發言，也可以集體寫作交談，還可以即時評論別人，提出意見。可以充分利用現代化的教具，如要求同學把廣告作業寫在透明膠片上放在高映機上播映，讓大家評論是否有漏洞，是否得體。

練習

練習分兩種，書面寫作和口頭表達。

書面練習如開業通知（報刊廣告），如訂貨單設計，如對方未依期交貨而去信要求賠償，等等。書面寫作注重下列原則：

- 1 實用——清楚目的，注意實用，利用適當程式寫作
- 2 簡易——行文要簡潔，文字力求淺白易明，如能使用淺白文言更好
- 3 規範——無論繁體、簡體，都應使用正規漢字，寫約定俗成的詞語和句子，減少方言干擾
- 4 美觀——調整字、行間距及字體尺寸大小

口頭表達注重下列原則：

- 1 咬字清晰——力求避免懶音
- 2 簡潔清楚——爭取時間，但交代時、地、人、數目要清楚
- 3 注重條理——說話要有條理，有層次
- 4 聲音腔調——注意調整聲音高下，聲調抑揚

原則上，所有開口表達項目，例如口頭業務報告，新產品推介記者招待會，等等，每一位同學都有機會站出來講三分鐘。要注意調整聲音高下，聲調抑揚，並且讓其他同學和導師評論指正。準備時間則視乎教學時間是否寬裕。假如時間充足，則在導修課准許學生用五至十分鐘時間準備，先在紙上記下重點。假如時間緊迫，則讓同學回家準備。我們鼓勵學生全以口頭表達，不要一邊觀看紙條，一邊唸字。

成績評核和課程評估

成績評核

這個科目沒有考試。學生成績的計算方法如下：

1. 課外習作 50%
2. 課堂（導修）習作 40%
3. 出席率 10%

計算出席率的目的不僅是保證學生出席聆聽講解，而且在課堂上取得相關參考材料，參與討論，明白商用中文的使用原理和寫作方法。

任教的教師通常在學期完結後進行檢討。歷年來，綜合教師的意見，是：

在合作學習的環境下，每一小組都能依時完成教師所佈置的功課，並且能達致基本要求。但如個別繳交書面作業，偶然有些同學語文水平較差，無法達到要求。

儘管修讀的同學絕大部分最後都能取得合格成績，但其實其水平頗為參差。這當中有很多因素造成，包括其原來語文水平不高，不可能三四個月就能提高，還有不少功課是小組合作完成的，水平差的同學無形中就佔了便宜。大部分院校在評核成績時采用常模參照(Norm Referenced Measurement)，而不是標準參照(Criterion Referenced Measurement)，我們自然也無從訂定絕對標準。有關大學生的「語文基準」，就讓有關當局去製訂，會比較合適。

課程評估

在現代課程系統中，教學評估無疑是一個非常重要的組成部份。(Frederiksen & Collins, 1989; Nickerson, 1989)課程評估不僅是反省過去，而且要顧及未來發展，討論如何發展(Nisbet, 1984: 163)。不過，大學以問卷調查為主的課程評估，有一大部份是針對教師備課、教學態度和批改作業是否及時和公允的問題，因為事涉敏感，這裡不準備介紹其內容。針對課程是否實用、內容是否充實的問題，過去十年，這一科目的平均得分都在3與4之間（5分最高，1分最劣）。學生的反應是不錯的。但是，給學生的問卷調查祇反映部份現象，更有意義的課程評估其實隱藏在問卷調查的背後。本校有一個傳統，選修科能否「賣座」，很靠口碑，如果口碑不好，以後開辦同一課程，選修的人逐年減少，課程祇好結束。近年香港大學注重經濟效益，各類科目要計算成

本，「商用中文」想與雨後春筍般開設的各類選修科競逐，爭取學生，並不容易。校方一直視學生反應及選課需求而決定是否開辦下去，每一班如選讀人數不足12人則取消開辦。現在這個課程已經開辦十年。以2000至2002年為例，每一年度皆開辦20組。可見接手的同事能夠兢兢業業，盡忠職守，保持課程內容充實，教法活潑，使這個科目維持旺盛的生命力，否則不會每年選科都呈現供不應求的現象。

課程評估除了調查學生對課程內容的意見，當然還得注意社會需求，尤其是僱主，最後才是教師，凡是與課程有關的利益集團的反應都得考慮。

這裡面存在一些不調和的情形：學生普遍要求實用和有趣，教師盼望提高學員的語文水平，而僱主則要求僱員之文字表達既符合商用格式又能靈活變通（陳月紅，2001：107-120）——這當然得有較高的語文水平才行。三方面的要求頗有差距。教師得時刻注視市場，斟酌損益。

結語

課程價值

「商用中文」從開辦到現在超過十年。一方面是時代需求，這個課程本身有存在價值，另一方面大概是由於這個科目的教學以實踐為主，理論為輔，頗能做到師生互動，趣味和應用兼顧。

建議

這個科目偏重實用性的語文訓練。實用性，就得配合社會動態和需要，得隨時調整內容以適應社會轉變和需要。但另一方面，既是語文訓練，多少得遷就師生的興趣和背景，任教的教師可依據自己的班級作適量調整和部署。

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香港小學課程統整的展望

梁偉倫

香港教育學院課程及教學系

隨著後現代主義和資訊科技對全球的影響，香港的教育需要對應未來社會及個人的需要，而現行的小學課程存在一定的改革空間，課程發展議會（2001）就未來十年香港學校課程發展的方向和策略，建議發展校本課程及跨領域學習以配合課改。香港小學課程統整並不是新生事物，推行課程統整將要面對的困難和挑戰實在不少，其中以「教師」、「學校」和「教育整體」的因素尤為關鍵。

Integrating Primary School Curriculum in Hong Kong: The Way Forward

From the perspective of postmodernism and advances in information and communication technology, education in Hong Kong needs to cater for the future of the society as well as the individuals; and there is a potential capacity for the reform of current primary school curriculum. The Curriculum Development Council (2001) announces the approaches and strategies for curriculum reform in the coming ten years by encouraging school-based curriculum development as well as integrated learning. Curriculum integration is not a 'new' issue. There are many challenges and obstacles for the implementation; and the critical factors are in relation to 'Teacher', 'School' and 'Education System'.

一．前言

隨著後現代主義的誕生，資訊科技年代的來臨，與及全球趨向一體化的關係，整個世界正在急速地轉變之中。因此，香港的教育也有需要與時並進，作出相應的變革。香港特別行政區首長董建華先生早於 1999 年 10 月的施政報告中，明確表示港人必須實踐終身學習，使香港成為一個富創意和以知識為本的社會，並致力讓兒童獲得全面的發展。首先教育統籌委員會（2000）發表對香港教育制度的改革建議中，強調「終身學習，全人發展」的大方向。其後課程發展議會（2001，頁 24）發表的《學會學習 - 課程發展路向》報告書中，就未來十年香港學校課程發展的方向和策略，建議學校可因應本身的條件配合課改：「確保所有學習領域、學科均有連貫性.....透過跨學習領域的學習，也能讓學生從多角度觀

察事物」。報告書更強調學會學習和全人發展，並以校本課程、全方位學習、多元化教材及評估、教學跑出課室和彈性上課時間等作為改革的路向。由此觀之，香港小學未來的課程發展，與後現代課程觀（Doll, 1993）的多元而開放的課程設計，著重教師與學生之間的互動作用，有著一定程度的相近理念。

二．小學課程統整的回顧

課程發展議會建議的跨科學習和課程統整並非新生事物，傳統的香港小學課程以共同核心科目為本，再輔以一些跨科學習，目的是為學童提供全面的基礎教育。當局為了加強課程的均衡性和連貫性，過往曾經推行一些有關課程和教學的變革（見表一），都與單元教學、跨科目學習和課程統整有著密切的關係。

表一：香港小學教育有關跨科目學習／課程統整的措施

年份	措施或指引	有關重點
1975	推行活動教學	專題設計
1981	德育指引	跨科學習
1985	公民教育指引	跨科學習
1990	教育統籌委員會第四號報告	科目整合
1992	課程發展處成立科目統整小組	科目統整
1996	統整小學社會／科學／ 健教三科為常識科	科目統整 單元教學
1997	學校性教育指引	跨科學習
1999	學校環境教育指引	跨科學習
2001	課程發展議會 (2001)： 《學會學習－課程發展路向》報告書	專題研習 跨科學習

早年教育統籌委員會 (1990) 發表的第四號報告，已建議整合學校有關的科目，從而作出課程統整。現行以科目為本的小學課程，可能存在一些問題，例如：科目日漸增多、教學內容重疊、學習經驗切割零碎並與生活和社會聯繫不足、科目內容未能對應新生的事物和知識等。另一方面，科目為本的小學課程也有一定的優點：無論課程、教材和教學方法，經過多年來的發展和檢討，已經有一套完整的系統和既定的安排，一般都能銜接公開考試和升學制度。再者，大部分的學生、教師和家長亦普遍接受有關的教育理念，假若香港的小學教育要在短期內作出重大的課程變革，預見會遇到很大的阻力。

三．為何要推行及加強課程統整

既然傳統以科目為本的小學課程有其一定的優點及

存在價值，要作課程改革亦非易事，為何課程發展議會卻建議推行及加強課程統整呢？其實從一些有關的文獻之中，不難探討有關跨科學習和課程統整優勢的論說。Alexander (1995) 列舉七種影響小學教育和課程的思想／意識型態(Ideology)。其中「古典人文主義思想」(Classical Humanist Ideology) 主導以科目為本的課程，著重傳統的文學、科學和人文學科，因而學科之間受重視的程度，差異很大。另一方面，「社會改革需要思想」(Social Imperatives: Reformist Ideology) 則主導以發展個人和貢獻社會進步的課程，著重公民和社會意識，視綜合學習經驗為課程重點，而課程統整與上述思想有著密切的關係。Lake (1994) 則指出有關課程統整的多元性定義當中，普遍包含以下的共同元素：

- 科目間的整合
- 學習概念之間的關聯
- 以主題組織學習經驗
- 彈性編排學習時間
- 多元化的教材和評估
- 小組合作學習和專題研習

另一方面，Beane (1997) 提倡所謂「真實的課程統整」(Authentic Curriculum Integration)。他認為課程統整不單是課程組織 (Curriculum Organization)，更加是一種課程設計 (Curriculum Design) 模式：教師和學生共同合作，以一些重要的問題和事件為起點，不受科目的限制下組織有關的學習經驗，並以加強個人和社會的聯繫為重點。Beane 更進一步建議可供統整的範圍有四方面：新和舊的學習經驗、學校和社群、日常和流行資訊，與及個人和社會的問題。此外，為針對不同程度的課程統整，Drake (1998) 列舉了一個較廣為人接受的「統整分類序列」(Continuum of Integration)，如果將香港的小學課程作相應的配套，可歸納如下 (見表二)：

表二：Drake 的「統整分類序列」和香港的小學課程

Drake 的統整分類	統整程度／層次	香港小學課程的例子
傳統式 (Traditional Integration)	單一科目內容的整合	科目內的單元／主題教學
融合式 (Fusion Integration)	一個課題插入多個科目中教授	多個科目並行教授同一主題，例如：愛滋病、環保等
科目統整式 (Integration within One Subject)	將多個學習範疇統整於一個科目之中	小學常識科的學習範疇及單元
多學科式 (Multidisciplinary Integration)	以主題聯繫各科，由學生自行作學習概念之間的關聯	涉及多個學科的學習，例如有關公民教育、德育的主題教學
跨學科式 (Interdisciplinary Integration)	以主題聯繫各科，但由教師作明顯和系統化的學習概念關聯	以統整日／週／月進行主題教學，彈性編排學習時間，多元化的教材和評估
超學科式 (Transdisciplinary Integration)	以生活化的主題，組織學習經驗時，以個人成長和對社會的貢獻作關聯，並且不必以科目分割有關的學習	著重學習概念之間的關聯及衝破學習領域／科目界限的專題研習

如果將 Beane 的「真實的課程統整」和 Drake 的「統整分類序列」之中的「超學科式」作出比較，不難發覺兩者的共通點，就是學習經驗不再受科目的框框所限制，而是以生活化的個人及社會經驗作為學習起點。再者，Dewey (1938/69) 認為教育和社會經驗有著不可分割的關係；而人類的智能，尤其是解難能力，是個人透過與群體和社會多接觸所獲得的生活經驗發展出來。所以 Dewey 的社群學習理念，正正支持著課程統整透過生活化的主題，將課堂學習、課外活動、家庭和社會經驗連結起來，好讓學生能夠融匯貫通，面對學習和生活的挑戰。

關於學童的認知發展，Vygotsky (1978) 認為兒童在群體中的互助和互動，有利於發展解決困難的能力。由於小組合作學習 (Cooperative Learning) 強調組內學生的互助及互動，因此有理由相信，運用小組合作學習於教授統整課程，能夠更有效地強化學童的認知發展；可是進行分組互動學習活動時，教師是不能掉以輕心的。Galton & Williamson (1992) 根據英國首個大型的「小學課堂觀察及學習評估」研究 (ORACLE Project) 結果指出，進行小組學習活動，教師必須指導和監察學生在小組中的合作性和互動情況，確保學生進行有意義的學習活動。反之，硬性和表面化的分組座位安排，會導致學習效果大打折扣，甚至產生相反的效果，例如：浪費教學時間和產生課室管理的問題。早年香港小學推行活動教學，強調分組學習，部分老師可能忽略有需要安排相應的學習活動，以配合有關的分組安排，因而導致學習效果大打折扣。由於課程統整著重小組合作學習、多元化的教材及減少倚賴教科書施教、以主題組織學習經驗及彈性編排學習時間，有別於一般傳統及欠缺彈性的分組教學，因此較容易照顧學生的個別學習差異。

另一方面，根據 Gardner (1999) 的多元智能 (Multiple Intelligences) 理念指出，人類可擁有八種智能：包括語言、數理、空間、音樂、體藝、人際、內省和自然博物。Gardner 更聲稱學校教育一般只能顧及語言和數理智能的發展，至於其餘的六種智能，很容易受到忽視。所以，學校應為學生提供靈活多變的學習機會，並以多元的方式評估學生的身心發展。故此，教師進行課程統整，可以專題聯繫各科目的學習概念，準備生活化的教材，為學生提供不同類別的學習經驗，使學生的多元智能得以全面發展。再者，Caine & Caine (1997) 指出，根據人腦的研究 (Brain Research)，教師必須為學生提供連貫性的學習經驗，因為人類腦袋的運作，處理完整資訊的能力較強，但處理零碎資訊的能力較弱。因此，課程統整強調完整性及生活化的學習，

看來更能配合學生的腦部運作。

最後，有關學生的學習表現，Vars (1996) 檢視超過 100 個研究項目後，獲得的結論是：學生在統整課程的學習表現，與學習科目為本課程的表現相若，有時的表現會更佳；再者，若以傳統的評核方式評估學習表現，亦獲得相同的結果。故此，學生看來並不會因為課程統整而導致學習表現有所低落。

四·推行課程統整的關鍵問題

統整課程雖然具備不少優點，可是推行的過程亦無可避免要面對一定的困難。根據 Zandt & Albright (1996) 指出，由美國「進步主義教育協會」(Progressive Education Association) 早於 1932-1940 年間進行的「八年研究」(Eight-Year Study)，就 30 所高中的 1474 名畢業生與其同輩比較，進行統整課程與傳統科目為本課程的相關研究，發現以下的重要因素，足以影響推行課程統整的成敗：

- 共同改革的目標
- 民主的領導
- 教師的團隊精神
- 家長 / 社會的理解和支持
- 足夠的資源配合
- 校外的支援
- 改革的自由和承擔

另一方面，Shipman 等 (1974) 就英國六十年代末期關於統整課程的研究項目「喬爾統整學習計劃」(Keele Integrated Studies Project) 作出觀察，並指出有關進行課程統整的一些決定性因素：

- 教師明白課程統整的理念
- 科目的界限為統整的障礙
- 教師的保守主義使課改進程緩慢
- 公眾的認同為支持教師的改革動力
- 整體教育體制的配合
- 改革時間要足夠
- 教師的能力和額外的工作量

香港方面，課程發展議會 (1999) 於 1997 至 98 年間進行一項名為「教師對《小學課程指引》的見解」研究，對象為 2502 位來自全港 100 間小學的教師，就教師對小學課程指引的見解作出調查，研究結果之中有兩點與課程統整有著莫大的關係：

要點一：教師普遍認為培育學生的智力發展和德性發展最重要，其次為群性、個人和身體發展，而美感發展是最少教師認為重要的課程目標。

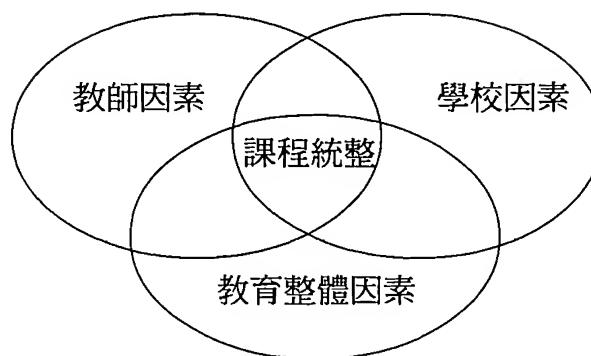
要點二：各科教師在安排教學活動時，未能兼顧體育、人文及社會、德育、語文、數學、科學及科技，和美育及創作等七個學習範疇和經驗。

然而 Lawton (1989) 指出，一個專業的教師應該透過科目內和跨科目的整合，將本身的教學內容配合校內其他教師的教學。因此，教師之間為學生提供的學習經驗和內容，應該作整體的課程聯繫；否則教師們各自為政，教學內容可能比較沉悶重覆、零碎切割、偏離實際的生活經驗，學生將會是最終的受害者。再者，Hargreaves (1994) 認為長久以來，教師以科目專家 (Subject Expert) 自居；故此科目之間的界限不容易打破，會導致教師之間自我封閉、彼此疏離、難於合作；而推行課程統整及合作教學則有助於推動教師的團隊文化。反過來說，學校欠缺團隊文化又不利於推行跨科學習和課程統整。Beane (1997) 更指出，如果老師以學科專家自居，依據狹隘的「古典人文主義」編訂教學內容，導致課程以教師為中心；而當人們問及「什麼知識最有價值？」時，問題已變質為「誰人的知識最有價值？」。因此，個別教師在進行課程統整的同時，能否配合其他教師的教學，能否拼棄個人對個別學習領域/科目的喜好或重視，與及能否照顧學生全面和平衡的發展，極為關鍵。

五．展望與建議

香港小學過往推行相關的課程統整，可能因同期的其他改革太多，政策或未能貫徹始終，穩定性成疑，也許亦欠缺全面推行的計劃和決心，實在有需要參考外地的經驗。王啟淞 (2002, 頁 7) 從香港終身學習教育改革看課程統整中指出：「兩者息息相關，終身學習教育改革是制度的改革，課程統整則主要在校內，人的層面進行。」再者，周淑卿 (2002, 頁 248) 就統整課程與教師文化提出以下的觀點：「雖然課程統整方案可能與既存的教師文化不相容，但是藉政策推動之際，配合適切的配套政策，或可在課程改革進行之際，同時試圖帶動教師文化的革新。」故此，綜合上文所述於不同年代和國度進行的研究結果和相關學者的論據，不難歸納和引伸有關香港小學推行課程統整的重要因素，這包括「教師」、「學校」和「教育整體」三方面的考慮（見圖一）。

圖一：香港小學推行課程統整的重要因素



首先，推行課程統整的教師因素不少，例如：教師掌握了有關統整的知識和技能嗎？教師有認同統整的態度嗎？教師有足夠的支援嗎？在多少項教育改革同時進行之下，怎樣激勵老師的士氣？如何協助教師面對因統整而激增的工作和壓力？因此，推行課程統整的成功因素很多，其中關於教師的因素尤為重要。故此，當局有迫切的需要，安排合適的職前和在職的專業發展和培訓；而掃除教師的「學科專家」和狹隘的「古典人文主義」思想，應該列為培訓目標之一。

另一方面，關於學校的因素包括：個別學校可有訂定校本的統整目標？校外的支援有實質幫助嗎？校內的領導民主嗎？教師們團隊的精神形成了嗎？科目間的利益衝突會成為統整的障礙嗎？校方有統整的自由和承擔嗎？因此，個別學校如要推行課程統整，校本課程發展會是可行的方案，而訂定明確的統整目標、具質素的領導、平衡校內各科老師之間的利益並發揮團隊精神，至為重要。

再者，關於教育整體的因素包括：從過往的課程改革中汲取經驗、制訂長遠課程統整的推行策略、爭取家長的諒解和支持、與及整體教育政策的配合等。推行課程統整的同時，課程如何與升中制度、公開考試、大專院校的入學要求銜接等問題，決策當局萬不能掉以輕心，有需要盡快面對和解決；否則，將為推行校本課程改革及統整埋下失敗的伏線。

六．結語

回顧香港小學的課程統整，不難發現它具備不少優

點；展望將來，若然學校在沒有足夠的準備和支援下，強行推動有關的課程改革是不智的。教師實在沒有必要一窩蜂地進行全面和急促的課程統整，但可以嘗試按步就班，根據校本的客觀條件，在「科目為本」教學的基礎上，參考上文 Drake (1998) 所建議的「統整分類序列」，以跨科的主題教學或專題研習，作不同程度/層次的課程統整，從而找出學生得益最大的可行模式，引導學生學會學習，全人發展。總的來說，雖然過往香港小學課程統整的成效或許並不顯著及有待肯定，而現時要面對的困難和挑戰也不少，可是加強推行課程統整的客觀條件較前成熟，動力亦正在逐漸茁壯之中。當局若能從過往的課程改革中汲取經驗，制訂長遠及整體的政策作配合，並且獲得家長的理解、認同和支持，假以時日，課程統整將成為香港小學課程發展極為重要的一環。

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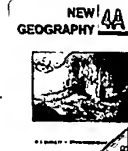
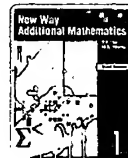
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「香港幼稚園寫字教學」調查報告

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本研究以問卷形式訪問了81位幼稚園教師，發現寫字是香港幼稚園教學的重要一環，幼兒早於幼兒班便開始寫字。幼兒寫字量雖大，卻未能透過寫字教學改善執筆方法和提高學習興趣。由於幼稚園多依據校長、教師及家長的意見擬訂寫字教學目標，他們多著重訓練學生的寫字能力，卻忽略幼兒的身心發展。

An Investigation into the Teaching of Chinese Handwriting at Hong Kong Kindergartens

This paper investigates how kindergartens teach Chinese handwriting in Hong Kong among 81 kindergarten teachers. The results indicate that Chinese handwriting is one of the emphases in kindergarten teaching. Kindergarten students start to drill handwriting as early as they are in K1. Though they write a lot of Chinese characters every day, they cannot improve their handwriting nor enjoy the process of writing.

It is also found that the teaching of Chinese handwriting at kindergartens is greatly influenced by the attitudes of kindergarten principals, teachers and the parents. However, they concern too much about the development of writing abilities among children rather than their physical and mental development.

一．引言

幼兒在學前教育時期學習寫字的問題，歷來備受爭議，王靜珠(1994)認為欲使幼兒的學習效果良好，絕對不是靠幼兒書寫超出心智能力的艱深國字。黃瑞琴(1995)亦指出寫字應否包括在幼稚園的課程中，尚待研究。然而，香港的家長一般認為幼兒從入讀幼稚園的第一天起就應學習寫字（Cheng, 1989），而學寫中文字，更被視為學前教育的重要環節（Oppen, 1989）。這或與心急的父母望子成龍，期望幼稚園教師能早點教導孩子寫字有關（黃意舒，1996）。

不過，香港課程發展議會（1996a）提出學前教育工作者不應期望4歲以下的兒童能夠寫字；而兒童每次寫字、詞或句子分量應適當，切不可過多。面對家長和教育署不同的要求，幼稚園教師在這方面如何取捨？究竟本港幼稚園如何教導幼兒寫字？而作為前線工作者的幼稚園教師對幼兒寫字教學又有甚麼看法？本研究將就上

述問題作出探究，希望能對香港幼兒寫字問題提供具體的參考資料。

二．文獻回顧

1. 寫字的涵義

香港課程發展議會（1996a）認為「寫」是一種語言技巧，除了包含執筆寫字的意思外，也是一種以圖畫、標誌和文字表達意念的方式。黃意舒（1996）亦認同「寫字」除了指握筆書寫的動作外，也指文字意義的表達。

Graves（1978），Tamburrini（1982）和Sehickedanz（1986）則進一步認為「寫字」涉及不同層次的分析和綜合能力。Chan（1993）支持這一看法，她認為「寫字」不單是一項複雜的過程，更是複雜的動作，因為中文的語標特性(logographic nature)（一個符號代表一個字），令中文字沒法直接標示出其含義和發

音。由此可見，對幼稚園學生來說，「寫字」並不是簡單的活動。

2. 幼兒寫字能力的發展

培養幼兒的寫字能力，並非一朝一夕的事。Temple等（1988）指出兒童能開始正確寫字，通常都不是寫字教學的直接結果，而是兒童在日常生活中逐漸學習的成果。例如Mathews（1984）發現幼兒在兩歲時可以畫出飛機、車子之類的事物；三歲時開始懂得創作圖畫式的符號(pictorial symbols)；五六歲時才能運用符號系統(notation system)，畫出簡單的字。

這個循序漸進的漫長發展與幼兒身心的成長有著密切的關係，TanLin(1982)歸納出3至5歲幼兒寫字能力的發展過程可分為以下五個階段：

- a. 塗鴉期：3.3歲以下的幼兒，均以塗鴉式來表示寫字。
- b. 點、線期：3.6至4歲的幼兒，僅會以點、線來印(print)一些字母和數字。
- c. 直線、曲線期：4至4.6歲的幼兒，會寫(write)一兩個字，但字形筆畫多不連。
- d. 大寫印刷體字母期：4.6歲以上的幼兒能寫出筆畫相連的字母及數字。
- e. 小寫印刷體字母期：5歲幼兒已會印寫自己的姓名，複製(copy)一些簡單的字。

3. 幼兒寫字學習的教導

香港課程發展議會（1996b）指出幼稚園教師不應期望幼兒班學生能夠寫字，教師在要求學生書寫前，必須先培養其學習寫字的能力，幼稚園教師應通過如穿珠、繪線條、排列圖片等活動，來訓練學生的寫前技巧，例如小肌肉的運用能力、手眼的協調及方向的概念，幼稚園教師應在幼稚園高班才開始讓學生寫字，因為大部分高班學生此時才具備學習寫字的能力。

事實上，幼兒如未經繪畫的階段便開始練習寫字，由於其肌肉運動不能自如，寫字會較感困難；而練習繪畫則可調節肌肉活動，增進幼兒日後寫字的控制能力。所以，繪畫是幼兒練習寫字的重要基礎，幼稚園教師應鼓勵幼兒以繪畫來替代呆板的寫字活動（王靜珠,1994）。同時，幼兒書寫前必須有一隻「穩定的手」和一隻「輕巧的手」，幼稚園教師要藉著日常生活中各種手部動作和感官活動，為幼兒做好寫字的預備工作（Montessori, 1948）。

有何具體的預備方法？Dyson（1990）建議幼稚園

教師可以利用幼兒活動，幫助他們將活動與書面語聯結起來，例如幫孩子寫下物品的名稱；在遊戲的角落放置各種書寫材料，如白紙、蠟筆、顏色筆等，讓幼兒自由探索和遊戲，並在遊戲中自發地、隨意地塗寫文字，這就是Strickland（1989）所說的「幼兒的讀寫著重在幼兒的主動學習，而不是老師的教」。

寫字其實是幼兒語文教學中困難的一環，教師應循序漸進，給予幼兒多方面的積極引導，使幼兒對寫字產生興趣，才能培養他們的寫字信心。日本兒童教育家清水曉（1985）提醒我們在孩子對學習文字還不感興趣，還沒有學習的欲望時，不應硬要他學，拚命地填、灌。他還指出假如你的孩子對學習文字的需求比別人遲一點，也不用擔心，不要著急，只要多加思考如何引發孩子的興趣，然後靜待教學機會。他的話值得當今家長和教師深思。

4. 相關研究

有關幼兒中文寫字教學的研究，見諸文獻者甚少。在台灣，僅有朱海蘭、李明珠（1988）的研究，她們發現幼兒的寫字預備能力因人而異。有些幼兒在5歲時已具備良好的手眼協調能力，但有些幼兒到了6歲仍未能寫字，她們認為培養幼兒的寫字預備能力十分重要。

在香港，則只有Chan（1993）和香港課程發展議會（1996b）曾探討過相關課題。Chan（1993）指出本港3至4歲的幼兒在學習中文字書寫前，若能得到5至6個月的預備能力訓練，則其學習寫字的表現比缺乏這類預備能力訓練的幼兒顯然有較佳的表現。

香港課程發展議會（1996b）的研究則發現本港幼兒班的學童在運用小肌肉的能力及手眼協調方面尚未成熟，不能純熟地控制書寫工具，亦未能正確辨別不同的字，因此，一般幼兒並不適合學習寫字。幼稚園高班學生的手眼協調較佳，小肌肉稍為成熟，可以選擇寫一些以直筆、橫筆為主，以及結構簡單的中文字學習寫字。

然而，現時香港幼師對寫字教學有多少認識？在實際施教中又有多少困難？怎樣改善？這等問題都缺乏具體研究答案，正促成了本研究的研究動機。

三．研究目的

幼兒寫字問題一向是社會人士關注的問題；但可惜一直以來，相關研究不足，社會上又眾說紛紜，為向教育同工、家長，以及一般社會人士提供有關幼稚園學生寫字教學的具體參考資料，本研究旨在調查探討：

1. 現時香港幼稚園進行寫字教學的情況；
2. 香港幼稚園教師對現時幼稚園的寫字教學的意見。

四·研究方法

針對研究目的，本研究採「定量調查」方式，以問卷為研究工具，共發出85份問卷予香港教育學院幼稚園課程的學員，選擇他們作為研究對象是因為這個課程的學員來自全港不同的幼稚園，反映面應較廣。在進行問卷調查之前，本研究先進行預試 (Pilot Study)，邀請4位幼稚園教師填寫問卷，以測試問卷中有沒有不明確的地方。結果發現參加預試的幼師都能在20分鐘內完成問卷，並一致表示問卷方向清楚，字詞明確。

五·研究結果

本研究共收回81份問卷，收回率達95.3%。81份問卷中，沒有一份漏填超過兩個答案，全部都是可供分析的問卷。81位被訪者中，5位(6.2%)是校長，7位(8.6%)是主任，1位(1.2%)是助教，其餘68位(84%)是教師，所有被訪者均是女性，教齡由1年至35年不等。至於她們服務的幼稚園所採用的教學語言，以中、英文幼稚園最多，共有41位(50.6%)。經分析後，結果如下：

(一) 現時香港幼稚園寫字教學實況

(1) 幼稚園寫字教學的目標

超過七成被訪者認為學生寫字可以「訓練學生的寫字能力」和「提高學生的認字能力」，而認為寫字教學可「提高學生的學習興趣」者不足兩成，詳見下表：

表一：幼稚園寫字教學目標【可選多個答案】

幼稚園寫字教學目標	選擇人數	百分比
訓練學生的寫字能力	61	75.3
提高學生的認字能力	54	66.7
提高學生的思維能力	18	22.2
提高學生的學習興趣	15	18.5
其他	10	12.3

(2) 幼稚園寫字教學目標的擬訂根據

超過一半被訪者根據校長意見擬訂寫字教學目標，亦有近半數幼稚園參考教師及家長的意見，反而《學前教育課程指引》的意見並不太受重視，詳見下表：

表二：幼稚園寫字教學目標的擬訂根據【可選多個答案】

幼稚園寫字教學目標的擬訂根據	選擇人數	百分比
校長意見	47	58.0
教師意見	38	46.9
家長要求	35	43.2
《學前教育課程指引》	22	27.2
參考其他學校做法	16	19.8
校董會或校監的意見	9	11.1
其他	2	2.5

(3) 幼稚園學生初學寫字年級

被訪者指出超過六成幼稚園學生在幼兒班便開始寫字，詳見表三：

表三：幼稚園學生初學寫字年級

開始學寫字的時間	選擇人數	百分比
幼兒班上學期	21	25.9
幼兒班下學期	34	42.0
低班上學期	19	23.5
低班下學期	6	7.4
中班上學期	1	1.2

(4) 幼稚園學生的寫字量

被訪者指出不同班級的幼稚園學生每周的中文寫字量頗多，幾乎每級學生每周都寫多於40格，而學生年級越高，寫字越多，詳見表四：

表四：幼稚園學生的寫字量

百分比	少於40格	10-20格	21-30格	31-40格	多於40格
幼兒班	13.6	9.9	9.9	3.7	18.5
低班	7.4	9.9	9.9	12.3	32.1
中班	3.7	7.4	2.5	7.4	32.1
高班	3.7	7.4	6.2	6.2	49.4

(5) 寫字教學佔幼稚園教學總時數的百分比

研究員請被訪者自行計算寫字教學佔其教學總時數的百分比，發現單是寫字教學已佔去接近幼稚園教學四成時間，詳見表五：

表五：寫字教學佔幼稚園教學總時數的百分比

幼稚園寫字教學所佔教時	選擇人數	百分比
0-21%	26	32.1
21-40%	32	39.5
41-60%	15	18.5
61-80%	5	6.2
81-100%	3	3.7

(6) 幼稚園進行寫字教學評估

超過七成幼稚園視學生寫字為「平日習作」，而接近一半學校則以「測驗考試」和「默書」評估學生寫字成績，亦有幼稚園透過「教師觀察紀錄」評估學生寫字表現，詳見下表：

表六：幼稚園寫字教學評估【可選多個答案】

幼稚園寫字教學評估	選擇人數	百分比
平日習作	57	70.4
測驗考試	39	48.1
默書	39	48.1
教師觀察紀錄	35	43.2
家長觀察紀錄	7	8.6
比賽	7	8.6

(7) 幼稚園對寫字教學的重視程度

問卷請被訪者由先至後列出幼稚園對聆聽、說話、閱讀、寫字和寫作在中文學習範疇內受重視的程度【5分代表最重視，1分代表最不重視】，發現寫字教學在幼稚園的受重視程度僅次於「聆聽」和「說話」，但比「閱讀」還要高：

表七：幼稚園對不同中文學習範疇的重視程度

幼稚園對不同中文學習範疇的重視程度	平均重視分額(1-5)
說話	3.78
聆聽	3.76
寫字	3.08
閱讀	3.00
寫作	1.40

(二) 幼稚園教育工作者對幼稚園現行寫字教學的意見

(1) 幼稚園寫字教學的作用

被訪者大多認同幼稚園寫字教學目標，超過八成被訪者認為幼稚園寫字教學可以「訓練學生的寫字能力」，七成被訪者認為幼稚園寫字教學可以「增加學生的認字量」，甚至「增強學生的語文能力」；但認為寫字教學可「提高學生的學習興趣」者則不足兩成，詳見下表：

表八：幼稚園寫字教學作用【可選多個答案】

幼稚園寫字教學的作用	選擇人數	百分比
訓練學生的寫字能力	66	81.5
提高學生的認字量	57	70.4
增強學生的語文能力	57	70.4
提高學生的寫作能力	41	50.6
提高學生的說話能力	27	33.3
提高學生的思維能力	27	33.3
提高學生的學習興趣	13	16.0
其他	1	1.2

(2) 幼稚園進行寫字教學評估的效能

超過五成被訪者(44人/54.3%)認為幼稚園學生寫字教學評估「有效」，只有12人(14.8%)認為評估「無效」。

認為「有效」的被訪者指出「中文寫字要靠記憶、重溫、學習基本、筆順，由淺入深才能作句或運用自如」、「兒童能寫出字形」、「能認讀已學的文字」、「可評估學生的認字結果」、「無須考試而減少小朋友學習的壓力」、「可加強兒童的記憶」等。

至於認為「無效」的被訪者指出「只不斷寫，方法未能達到認字及預期效果」、「機械式訓練」「沒有趣味」、「強迫性而無意義」，而且「寫的字不是必須的」、「時間不足」，加上「老師或家長協助幼兒完成」、「事前家長只替子女熟習，使能應付默書，但事隔多天後，學生已忘記怎樣寫」。

(3) 幼稚園學生中文寫字的問題

被訪者指出幼稚園學生中文寫字的最大問題是「執筆方法不正確」，其他問題依次為「坐姿不正確」、「筆順不正確」、「沒有興趣」等，詳見下表：

表九：幼稚園學生中文寫字的問題【可選多個答案】

幼稚園學生中文寫字的問題	選擇人數	百分比
執筆方法不正確	68	84.0
坐姿不正確	66	81.5
筆順不正確	57	70.4
沒有興趣	46	56.8
筆畫不正確	45	55.6
字體不端正	36	44.4
字體不美觀	30	37.0
其他	1	1.2

(4) 幼稚園中文寫字教學的困難

被訪者指出幼稚園中文寫字的最大困難是「學生個別能力差異大」，其次便是「幼稚園過分遷就家長要求」、「學生沒有興趣」和「家長對寫字教學觀念錯誤」等，詳見下表：

表十：幼稚園中文寫字教學的困難【可選多個答案】

幼稚園中文寫字教學的困難	選擇人數	百分比
學生個別能力差異大	60	74.1
幼稚園過分遷就家長要求	47	58.0
學生沒有興趣	47	58.0
家長對寫字教學觀念錯誤	45	55.6
幼師對寫字教學觀念模糊	42	51.9
教育署支援不足	39	48.1
教學時間不足	39	48.1
幼師的語文能力不足	18	22.2
《學前教育課程指引》不明確	15	18.5
其他	2	2.5

(5) 改善現時幼稚園中文寫字教學的方法

被訪者大多認為「教育署應提供明確指引」和「幼稚園改變中文寫字教學的方法」是改善現時幼稚園中文寫字教學的混亂情況的可行方法，詳見下表：

表十一：改善現時幼稚園中文寫字教學的方法【可選多個答案】

改善現時幼稚園中文寫字教學的方法	選擇人數	百分比
教育署提供明確指引	52	64.2
幼稚園改變中文寫字教學的方法	51	63.0
家長改變對中文寫字教學的要求	45	55.6
教育署提供更多支援	43	53.1
加強有關師資培訓	38	46.9
其他	1	1.2

六．結論

本研究發現香港的幼兒大多在就讀幼稚園低班時開始寫字，甚至超過六成幼兒在幼兒班便已開始寫字，被訪者大多認為這種情況並不理想，幼兒過早進行寫字，固然跟《學前教育課程指引》「學前教育工作者不應期望4歲以下的兒童能夠寫字」的說法不符，更重要的是幼兒在小肌肉和手眼協調發展未成熟的情況下便硬要寫字，結果出現「執筆方法不正確」等問題，幼兒既「沒有興趣」寫字，學習效果又怎會理想？幼稚園學生在身心發展尚未成熟時，是沒有足夠能力了解字形結構，寫出正確的文字的。強迫他們過早寫字，豈不是揠苗助長，弄巧成拙？

本研究亦發現現時幼兒大多每周須寫多於40格字，而且年級越高，寫字量便越大，結果單是寫字已佔去接近幼稚園四成教學時間。更值得關注的是接近一半學校以「測驗考試」和「默書」來評估學生寫字表現。對於幼兒的學習，這類評估和操練又是否恰當？

現行幼稚園的寫字教學目標的擬訂，大都以校長、教師及家長的意見為依歸，反而《學前教育課程指引》的意見並不太受重視，超過七成被訪者認為幼稚園寫字教學可「訓練學生的寫字能力」，七成被訪者認為幼稚園寫字教學可以「增加學生的認字量」，甚至「增強學生的語文能力」，被訪幼稚園教師肯定幼稚園寫字教學的語文教學作用；然而不足兩成被訪幼稚園教師認為寫字教學可「提高學生的學習興趣」，這與現今教育界提倡的「愉快學習」的理念實在背道而馳！學生沒有興趣學習，就算教學活動有多好的教學目標，教學成效亦成疑問！

再看，雖然現時大多幼稚園用上接近一半課堂時間進行中文寫字教學活動，但收效不大，不少受訪者指出學生對寫字「沒有興趣」，「學生個別能力差異大」。

由於現時香港幼稚園大多是私營的，她們為了經營，難免要迎合家長的「要求」，可惜「家長對寫字教學的觀念錯誤」，而幼稚園卻「過分遷就家長要求」。同時，幼稚園教師本身對寫字教學的觀念亦模糊，大多將寫字教學視為與聆聽教學和說話教學同樣重要，更視之為比「閱讀」更重要的教學活動，試問她們又怎能說服家長改變錯誤的觀念。何況大多受訪者都認為教育署提供有關的支援明顯不足，更令幼稚園教師不知所措。

被訪者相信「教育署提供明確指引」和「提供更多支援」、「幼稚園改變中文寫字教學的方法」、「家長改變對中文寫字教學的要求」方可扭轉現時學校白努力，而學生無興趣「寫」的困局。不過要達到上述的目標，必須有賴各方通力合作，無論幼教工作者、家長和教育當局都要正視和改進幼稚園寫字教學的方法，方能事半功倍。

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合作探究學習：探討一種創新教學模式的可行性

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「合作探究學習法」是「合作學習」其中一個模式，一般以小組形式進行。這模式強調各成員的個人學習績效、積極互賴精神和人際及小組學習技巧。它能有效提升學生的探究思維能力，有系統地提出問題、界定問題、搜集有關資料，利用有關語言和文字作出解釋，促進小組各成員及團體彼此之間的交流及增進他們的內在動機。教師及教育工作者可從有關中國語文教學的建議中，參考此創新教學模式的實施和評估，並商議其在未來教育改革上的可行性。

A Teaching Model That Is Worth Attempting: Group Investigation

Group Investigation (GI) is a model of cooperative learning in which students learn together in a group. The module emphasizes individual accountability, positive interdependence and interpersonal and group skills of the group members. Hence, GI is effective in enhancing students' skills of exploring and thinking, their ability to raise and identify questions systematically, seek relevant materials and present the organized materials verbally and in written form. The model can also increase interaction among students and their intrinsic motivation. From the example given on the teaching of Chinese language, teachers and educators can make reference to the implementation of GI in the classroom to determine the feasibility of such a model of innovative teaching in the education reform for the future.

一·前言

教師在課堂上面對不同能力和興趣的學生，既要達成已訂的教學目標，又要照顧個別差異，確會面對不同的教學困難。有些教師為求妥協，採用中間路線，以年齡相若學生的一般能力和興趣作為學習指標，結果既拖慢了能力高的學生的步伐，又增加了能力低的學生的挫敗感。假如這些教師在教學策略方面又不下點功夫，大部分時間都採用單向的講述方式，學生的學習動機及成果則會大為遜色。另一方面，有些教師雖改用以學生為本的一些教學方法，採用小組討論或角色扮演，可惜這些學習活動多由教師釐訂，忽略了學生的主動參與，所以仍然未能有效地令學生積極投入學習。

一種以小組學習形式進行的教學策略——「合作學習」(Cooperative Learning)——在國外已實施多年，並進行了六百多項的實驗研究及一百多項的相關研究，大部分的結果證明「合作學習」能促進學生的認知及社交

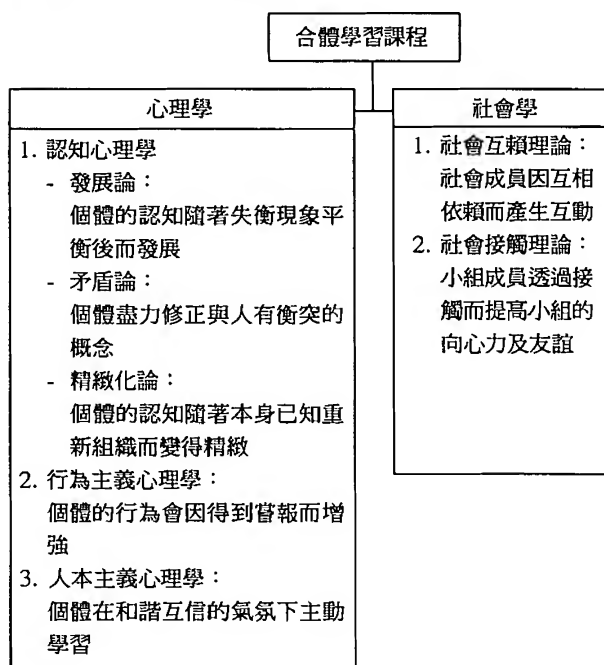
方面的發展 (Hooper & Hannafin, 1988; Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Slavin, 1995)，培養學生的高層次思考 (Mathews, Cooper, Davidson, & Hawkes, 1995) 及提高學生的內在動機 (Nastasi & Clements, 1991)。「合作學習」的模式眾多，適用於大部分年級和科目，較常用的有以下八種：學生小組成就區分法 (STAD)、小組遊戲競賽法 (TGT)、拼圖法第二代 (Jigsaw II)、小組協力教學法 (TAI)、合作統整閱讀寫作法 (CIRC)、合作探究學習法 (GI)、協同合作法 (Co-op Co-op) 和共同學習法 (LT)。

本文所探討的有效教學策略正是「合作學習」的其中一個模式——即「合作探究學習法」(Group Investigation)。這教學模式揉合了「合作學習」和「專題研習」的特色，能有效地提升學生的探究思維能力，更能有系統地提出問題、界定問題、搜集有關資料、利用有關語言、文字和圖像作出解釋、促進小組各成員及團體彼此之間的交流及增進他們的內在動機。

二．合作學習的理論架構

在了解合作探究學習法之前，我們必須對合作學習的理論有所認識。合作學習的基本理論其實並不複雜，我們大概可以從心理學和社會學這兩方面嘗試去探討。在心理學方面，此學習模式涉及認知心理學、行為主義心理學及人本主義心理學的學習理論；在社會學方面則涉及社會互賴論及接觸理論（見圖一）。

【圖一】合作學習理論架構



從認知心理學的學習理論來說，主要是從一群人一起工作所產生的力量去解釋合作學習。就發展理論 (Development Theories) 來說，皮亞傑 (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969) 相信語言、規則、象徵系統等知識，最能夠從團體中的人與人交往和互動過程中學到。此外，皮氏認為兒童在與人合作時會因不同意見而產生失衡現象，然後經過討論，再把問題解決，而先前的失衡現象獲得平衡後，兒童的認知便得以發展（張春興，1996）。矛盾論 (Controversy Theory) 對此也有相近的看法，認為當本身的概念與別人的概念有所衝突的時候，自己便會意圖去找尋新資料，以修正原本持有的概念，務求得出一個更好的結論。

小組中的成員為了向同組組員解釋學習材料，必先得把自己所知的事物組織好才能使對方容易明白。根據認知精緻化理論 (Cognitive Elaboration Theory) 所述，

給予指導的一方首先有所獲益，然後才會設法引導他人 (Slavin, 1990)。至於被指導的一方，他原有的實際學習水平會因此被延伸到另一較高的水平，而這兩水平之間的差距正是維果茨基提倡的「可能發展區」(Vygotsky, 1978)。合作學習一般採用異質分組方式，即在同一組內有不同學習能力的學生，能力高的學生為了要保證組內各成員都能精熟學習材料，好讓全組的共同目標得以實現，往往便會主動去輔導能力較低者，使他的「可能發展區」(Zone of Proximal Development) 有所延伸和提升。

從行為主義心理的學習理論來說，個體受環境的刺激會產生某種行為，如該行為為個體帶來賞報，便會使該行為有所增強而日後再次重複出現 (Skinner, 1974)。合作學習注重表揚學生合作成果，為學生帶來外在賞報，所以能增強學生的學習動機，並令其再三嘗試，不斷採用已逐漸熟習的方式。

從人本主義心理學的學習理論來說，哈姆柴克 (Hamachek, 1987) 強調和諧的教室氣氛能提高學生的學習動機。在合作學習的課室裏，同學都主動互相幫助，使大家學習有所進步，課室氣氛自然和諧，學習動機自然高漲。

社會學方面的有關理論有社會互賴論及接觸理論。社會互賴論假設人與人之間的互動是由社會互賴的組織方式決定，即是說積極互賴方式會產生助長式互動，使組內各成員互相鼓勵學習；反過來說消極互賴會產生對抗式互動，組內各成員便互相不鼓勵學習，也缺少了學習的主動性 (Johnson & Johnson, 1997)。

接觸理論主要提出人際間的合作能提高小組的向心力及友誼，而學生要在完全互賴和平等的地位下合作學習，才可以發展友誼 (Farivar, 1985, p. 27)。因此學生在不同層次和不同情境下的接觸，能增強彼此的相親相助，不受人數的多寡、課堂的大小、科目的性質等限制，切實可行，也就是合作學習模式的一種主要理念。

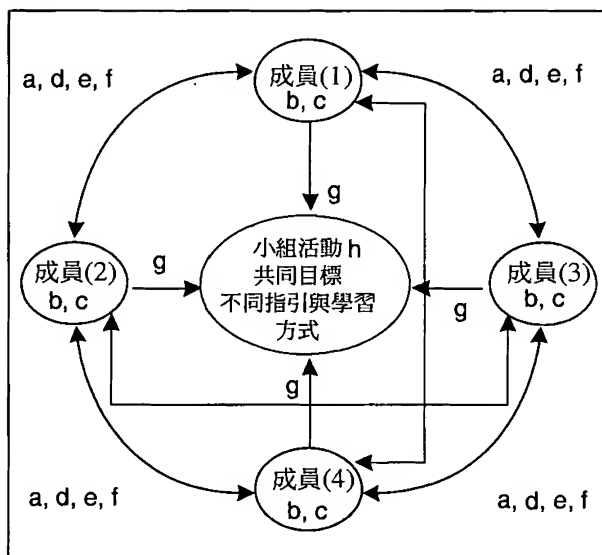
三．合作學習的重要元素

合作學習大多以分組進行，但其方式與一般的分組學習是大不相同的。合作學習不單讓學生分組討論課題及由學習能力較高的組員指導能力較低的成員，而且在有效的合作小組中，各成員對小組都有他的貢獻，他們都是互相依靠，並要懂得運用人際技巧進行助長式的互動去達成共同學習的目標。合作探究學習法無論在合作的時間、合作的程度和學習的深度上，都要比合作學習的其他模式要求要高。由此可見，成功的合作學習有其

獨特性，是具備了一些重要元素的。有些學者對這些元素略有不同看法，譬如說，史雷芬 (Slavin, 1990) 特別著重積極互賴精神和個人學習績效；莊遜兄弟 (Johnson & Johnson, 1999) 則在這兩項目外再加多了面對面的助長式互動、人際及小組學習技巧和小組分工及反思，但史雷芬和莊遜兄弟的看法都是建基於心理學的架構之上。高嫻 (Cohen, 1994) 則從社會學的角度去了解合作學習，而著眼於小組課業的特質上 (Antil, Jenkins, & Wayne, 1998)。總結各學者對合作學習的意見後，我們提出合作學習的重要元素有以下八項：積極互賴精神 (Positive Interdependence)、個人學習績效 (Individual Accountability)、面對面的助長式互動 (Face-to-face Promotive Interaction)、人際及小組學習技巧 (Interpersonal and Group Skills)、小組分工及反思 (Group Processing)、異質分組方式 (Heterogeneous Grouping)、組別大小 (Group Size) 及小組活動 (Group Tasks)。

在合作學習實施的過程中，這八項元素之間的關係如何？他們怎樣建構成合作學習？這些問題可從圖二得到解答。圖中央的橢圓形代表一個小組活動，每一個圍繞著這橢圓形的小橢圓形代表一個小組成員，他們的共同目標就是要把這個活動成功地完成。於是每個成員不單止要對自己的學習負責，同時也互相要對小組各成員的學習負責。這些成員擁有不同的能力和專長，能互相補足，積極互賴。他們在進行小組活動的過程中，需要運用人際及小組技巧，互相交流及反思，最後才能成功完成活動。

【圖二】合作學習概念圖（四人一組的小組活動）



- a：面對面的助長式互動 (Face-to-face Promotive Interaction) (發生在小組活動進行時)
- b：人際及小組學習技巧 (Interpersonal and Group Skills) (進行小組學習所需技巧)
- c：小組分工及反思 (Group Processing) (發生在小組活動完結後)
- d：積極互賴精神 (Positive Interdependence) (存在於各成員之間)
- e：異質分組方式 (Heterogeneous Grouping) (組內四個成員能力各異)
- f：組別大小 (Group Size) (小組一般有四個成員)
- g：個人學習績效 (Individual Accountability) (成功的小組活動有賴成員個別的努力)
- h：小組活動 (Group Tasks) (需要各成員的參與才可完成)

1. 積極互賴精神 (d)

在進行合作學習時，學生會認知到只有學習小組內的其他成員能達到學習目標，他們本身的學習目標才可能達到 (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1993, p. 6; Slavin, 1990)。即是說小組內成員成敗都是互相依賴，誰也不可缺少誰。正所謂「唇亡齒寒」，所以小組內各成員都會主動學習，以求達到預期的目標，成全教師的期望。

莊遜兄弟 (Johnson & Johnson, 1999) 提出三個步驟去建立小組成員的積極互賴精神：第一步是向小組分派一項清晰及容易量度成敗的工作；第二步是建立積極互賴目標，使成員明白到要待他們所有人對那項工作都懂了，目標才可達到；第三步是建立其他的積極互賴項目，以達成積極互賴的目標。這些項目包括積極互賴的賞報、積極互賴的資源、積極互賴的角色、積極互賴的身份、積極互賴的環境和積極互賴的工作。只要教師在課前預先計劃好分組的原則和辦法，在課堂上實行積極互賴的表現，其實是不難做到的。

2. 個人學習績效 (g)

小組的成功皆依賴所有成員的個別學習成果 (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Slavin, 1995)。由於小組的成績是各組員所獲進步分數的平均值，故每個成員都要盡己之責任去學習，並且互相幫助以肯定各人都能

精熟學習材料，以提高小組的成績。這樣，學習能力高的成員便會主導了整個小組討論，而部分成員不願參與討論的情境便較難出現。就香港目前的情況而言，只要教師能了解班上學生各人的能力，鼓勵各人盡量嘗試做到最好，個人和小組的學習績效都會相應提高。

3. 面對面的助長式互動 (a)

合作學習常賴小組成員互相鼓勵和幫助去把工作完成，以使最後能把小組的目標實現。莊遜兄弟 (Johnson & Johnson, 1999) 提出三個步驟去鼓勵組員進行面對面的助長式互動：第一步是安排足夠時間讓組員會面；第二步是強調積極互賴精神，以提醒組員要合作才可實現小組目標；第三步是監察各組，並特別鼓勵組員進行面對面的助長式互動，當有發現此類行為時，便加以祝賀和讚許。香港歷來以考試主導教學，學生的成績多以個人表現為準則，缺乏團隊精神和彼此互動互助的精神，合作學習有著一種反慣例、反傳統學習的創新模式，值得教師們嘗試。

4. 人際及小組學習技巧 (b)

良好的人際關係及小組溝通技巧也十分重要，一方面能減少組員之間的糾紛，另一方面能促進組員間的互動 (Cohen, 1994; Johnson & Johnson, 1999)，因此，這些技巧是決定小組生產力的重要因素 (Johnson & Johnson, 1997)。假如組員的社交技巧是強的話，他的合作小組的生產力也愈高。所以，持有高水準的人際及小組技巧的學生，他定能在組內把學習材料學好。這些社交技巧種類不少，常用的包括以下幾種：輕聲說話、積極聆聽、互相鼓勵、客觀批評和化解衝突。但是這些技巧不是天生的 (Barnes & Todd, 1995)，而是要經過教師提供的練習而得來的。假如只是把學生分組以後便要求他們一起學習，而期望他們能享受合作學習所帶來的好處，這是不大可能的事，從文章後半部提出的示例，可以見到這只會是一廂情願的想法。因此，若期望合作探究的方法成功的話，教師的學習指引和設計的練習非常重要，故在可行的模式的背後，我們仍須協助提升教師的教學設計的能力。

5. 小組分工及反思 (c)

小組分工及反思是指對小組活動進行反思的過程，首先須找出成員有哪些行為是有用或無用的，並決定如何繼續或作甚麼改變，目的是要改善成員的合作效率，

以利小組目標的達成 (Johnson & Johnson, 1999)。實驗指出有採納小組分工及反思的合作學習小組比沒有採納小組分工及反思的或獨自學習的成績為佳 (Yager, Johnson, & Johnson, 1985)。組員如果能夠經常對小組給予回饋、對組員互動的素質進行評核及為小組訂立目標藉以尋求改進，就是建立了小組分工及反思，使各組員有機會共同長進。有見及此，教師須經常提醒組員與組員之間的溝通以及組員對小組的歸屬感，並鼓勵學生體會合作探究中小組分工及反思的重要。

6. 異質分組方式 (e)

合作學習多鼓勵採用異質分組方式，即是在每一組別裏都可能不同學習能力、種族、性別、社經地位、興趣和特長的學生。這種分組方式可使成員有較好的機會去面對不同意見，對個人原有的概念帶來衝擊，使它得以修正或擴闊，從而促進認知發展。學習能力稍遜的成員經輔導後，也可延伸他的「可能發展區」。但是，教師在傳統課進行分組活動時，為了節省時間，往往只把座位相近的學生組合起來；而有些教師在選擇某種分組方式時，則主要是考慮學生的秩序問題；亦有些教師是讓學生自由選擇他們的組別，但據 Gamoran (1987) 指出，這些分組方式未必能導致有效的學習。

至於根據學生的特性例如能力、性別、社經地位等分組，又有兩種不同的看法。一派人主張同質分組，即組內學生的特性相近；另一派人則贊成異質分組，即組內學生的特性不一。採用同質分組可讓教師較容易為不同的組別進行課程調適，以達致更有效的學習。不過，同質分組法並不是對所有學生都有好處的，因當採用同質分組時，能力高的學生一般都專注在自己的工作上，鮮有互動產生；而能力低的學生亦未能有所進步，這是因為組內欠缺能力高的同學去幫助和解釋疑難 (Webb, 1989)。整體來說，只有中等能力的學生獲益，因為他們之間產生最多互動，能促進彼此間的學習 (Webb, 1992)。而當教師採用異質分組時，研究顯示能力低的學生能獲得進步 (Webb & Cullian, 1983)，因為他們能得到能力高的成員的指導與解惑 (Webb, 1992)。不過，中等能力的學生卻得不到益處，因為他們很少有機會去幫助能力低的成員解釋疑難，同時亦得不到能力較高的同學去為他們解惑。至於能力高的學生，異質分組一般也對他們有利，因為在他們為能力低的成員解惑時，他們再一次把知識分析和綜合，這有助他們的後設認知 (Meta-cognition)。

7. 組別大小 (f)

關於組別大小方面，在初嘗合作學習的時候，教師多喜歡較少人數的組別，例如二至四人一組去進行，因為較小的組別所需的社交技能較少，而且組員會較互賴，故效率較高 (Johnson & Johnson, 1999)。艾班 (Abrami, Chambers, Poulsen, Simone, D'Apollonia, & Howden, 1995) 亦認為較大的組別會妨礙有效的溝通，而且較難給予成員平均參與的機會，因而影響了學習的成效，故合作學習小組多數以二至六人為一組。而 Vermette (1998) 更認為多於四人一組是存在問題的，因為會削弱了成員扮演的角色，亦難以處理較多不同的意見，故他建議以三至四人一組，教師能就組內成員的能力、性別、性向及興趣方面，作出適當的平衡。以香港中小學的班房而言，三至四人應是可行的組別，只要在分組後把坐在前面的兩個座位轉往後方擺放，學生使隔著書檯以三至四人一組討論。至於稍大的組別，也可利用教師的創意，因應課室現場環境，從新安排檯椅。

8. 小組活動 (h)

Cohen (1994) 提示真正的小組活動需要組內每一個成員參與及作出貢獻，才可完成。每個成員在那活動上均擁有不同的資訊和材料，掌握不同的知識和技能，所以任何成員都沒法單獨把活動完成。於是他們便需互相交流，合力把問題解決，交流愈多，他們的得著就會愈多。假如換了一個不是真正的小組活動，情況便完全不同了。例如在 Webb (1991) 的研究中，發現一些所謂的小組活動，其實只需一位成員便可完成，這樣，決定所有成員的得著有幾高，並不在於他們交流的次數，而是視乎那成員所作的解釋有多少和多詳細。

四·提出合作探究學習法的教學策略

1. 合作探究學習法的特色

合作探究學習法是「合作學習」的其中一個教學模式，而且亦具備以上所提及的各種元素。這模式讓學生在小組內合作，找出小組樂意探索的問題，搜尋解答有關問題的資料，經過分析和綜合，然後向全班同學報告結果，並且作評核。除了上述關於合作學習的一些理論探討外，我們也可從杜威 (Dewey) 對教育目標和列榮

(Lewin) 對小組動力的主張，進一步瞭解合作探究學習法的理論基礎。

合作探究學習強調的精神無疑與杜威 (Dewey, 1990) 的看法一致，他認為兒童在學校的學習應與成年人的生活有高度的連續性，不可與社會的結構和價值觀脫節。如果想學校的教育能對學生將來的生活有所影響，學生在學校所學的知識、技能及價值觀一定要有意義，並和他們現時的生活相銜合。例如要培養學生終身學習的態度，教師就要讓學生親身經歷知識的追求，而不只是給他們傳授有關的東西。當學生能按各自的步伐去探索知識，他們便更能看到這些知識和他們生活的密切關係了。杜威主張在民主的社會裏，人民能自由表達意見及作批判性的思考，所以教師要提供機會給學生交流對事物的看法，並互相驗證真偽。其實，誠如杜威所堅信，人與人之間的合作能團結社會的組織，並促使社會邁向民主。相反，競爭只會使組織分裂，踐踏弱小才能在相比之下突出精英的個人表現。我們相信教育在於使每一個兒童都能發展他的潛能，不須在競爭的情況下，也能造就出一些優秀分子。合作探究學習就是一種有效的教學策略。

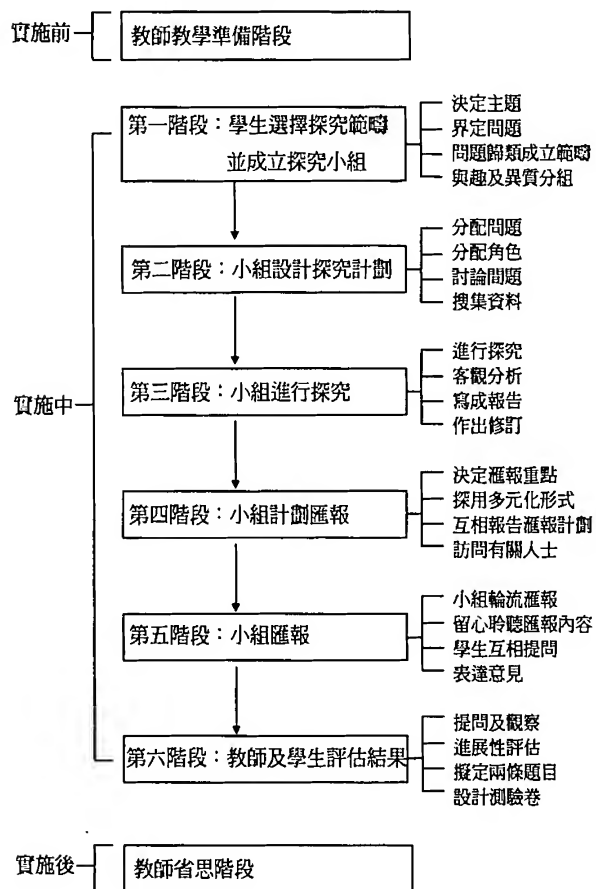
其實列榮 (Schmuck & Schmuck, 1988) 也再三強調小組的動力是有見地的，他主張各成員先要對合作的技能有充分的準備，才能發揮小組的動力，促使小組活動成功。他認為人類的行為不可單從個性來衡量，更要考慮的是那人身處的環境及當時的情形。合作探究學習就是基於這樣的信念而被西方學者多年來推崇作為學生學習模式的一種楷模。

2. 合作探究學習法的實施

就杜威對教育目標的主張，Sharan and Sharan (1992) 提出了四項條件，確保教師在實施合作探究學習法時，能緊守這方法原來的理念。這四項條件包括：探究、交流、分析及內在動機。這些條件同時出現，並互相影響。例如，當學生就自己選擇好的題目進行分組探究時，如能以本身對所搜集的資料作出分析，再與其他組員作意見交流，就能促進各人的認知及情意發展，提高他們對主題進深學習的內在動機。這四項條件建構了合作探究學習法實施時的六個主要階段：(一) 學生選擇探究範疇並成立探究小組；(二) 小組設計探究計劃；(三) 小組進行探究；(四) 小組計劃匯報；(五) 小組匯報；(六) 老師及學生評估結果。作者們茲介紹一個可

行的合作探究教學模式。我們根據 Sharan and Sharan 提出的這六個主要階段，再加以從教師分享經驗所得，設計出一個流程圖去說明如何實施合作探究學習法（見圖三）：

【圖三】合作探究學習法教學模式



以下就以中國語文教育其中一個教學單元「古詩和新詩」為例，具體說明 Sharan and Sharan (1992) 提出的合作探究學習法可如何在課堂上採用。

第一階段 - 學生選擇探究範疇並成立探究小組 (兩教節)

教師派給各組四位成員每兩人一首古詩，例如白居易的《燕詩》。不同組別獲派不同時期及格律的古詩，以增加學生對不同古詩的認識。兩人共同閱讀同一張派發的古詩，可增進成員之間的積極互賴，促使他們有更

多的交流。成員就這首詩進行簡單的討論，範圍可包括詩的內容、主旨、體裁等。然後教師再派給各組成員每兩人一首新詩，例如徐志摩的《偶然》。讓學生跟先前一樣進行討論。討論完畢，每組派一成員向全班報告他的小組討論結果，並提出他們對古詩和新詩的疑惑和看法，例如：

詩的形式是怎樣的？

詩人作詩時是否需要遵守某些規律？

詩的內容與人的生活有什麼關係？

為什麼詩的含意較難令人理解？

可否接納兩人對同一首詩有不同的理解？

我們需要了解詩的歷史背景嗎？

為什麼我們要了解作者生平？

為什麼作者選擇以詩的形式來表達自己的想法？

這首詩給你什麼感覺？

繼而，教師與學生可一起就以上的問題歸類為以下範疇，例如：

詩的形式體裁

作者生平及寫作動機

詩的內容理解

評析和欣賞

在成立小組方面，教師要充分考慮學生的意願，然後按異質分組的原則進行。具體來說，學生先按個人興趣和能力選擇其中一項範疇進行探究，然後教師把探究同一範疇的學生定為四人一組，並儘可能按成員的特質，例如：性別、能力、專長進行調配，形成異質小組。這種分組方法不但能引起學生的學習動機，而且可以增強小組成員之間的互賴及讓各成員發展他的專長。分組後，成員要為其所屬小組定下組別名稱及口號，以增強小組成員的團結力。

第二階段 - 小組設計探究計劃 (一教節)

以上各組的四位成員可就所選範疇內的問題作出增加或刪減，然後把問題分配給成員探究。而各成員均要擔當不同的角色，例如：統籌員、記錄等。接著他們要就所探究的範疇討論如何搜集有關資料。資料來源可包括教師、互聯網、圖書館等。教師宜提醒學生在設計探究計劃時，避免出現整個計劃其實只需一個成員也可完成的情況。此階段告一段落時，各小組應該提交一個探究計劃表，形式舉例如下：

「某組」擬訂的探究計劃表的示例

探究範疇	詩的形式體裁
成員(角色)	陳大文(組內統籌員)、張三(紀錄)、 李四(報告員)、王五(組別代表)
探究問題	1. 詩的形式是怎樣的? 2. 詩人作詩時是否需要遵守某些規律? 3. 新詩在形式上有何突破? 4. 試尋找幾首不守成規的新詩,彼此分享 5. 試尋找幾首遵守規律而又優秀的古詩 6. 推選一首最優秀和最具創意的詩和新詩和古詩 7. 以海報大小的紙張呈現兩首詩,包括文字、 圖像、色彩的設計與製作 8. 以小組的形成撰寫一份專題報告
資料來源	教師講義、互聯網下載資料、圖書館蒐集之參考 書及期刊論文

第三階段 - 小組進行探究 (三教師)

各組成員可按照協議,每人就所負責範疇的部分的問題或全部問題進行探究,讓各成員都看到自己對小組有貢獻。成員對所搜集到的資料進行整理、分析、綜合或繪製圖表等處理。成員遇到問題時,可先向小組內能力較高的同學請教,有需要時才向教師尋求幫助。藉著這些面對面的助長式互動,成員對某些概念的失衡得以平衡,他的「可能發展區」由此可獲得延伸。假若成員意見出現分歧,宜運用適當的人際及小組技巧,對問題進行客觀分析及進一步互相解釋個人的看法,試圖找出解決問題的方法,但成員不可經常找第三者調停。各組完成探究之後,宜把探究所得寫成報告,讓教師給予意見,然後作出修訂。

第四階段 - 小組計劃匯報 (兩教師)

成員先決定匯報的重點。匯報的形式可多元化,包括:口述、角色扮演、展示報告、播放幻燈片或高映片等,然後各組派一位代表互相報告匯報計劃。例如:以介紹《燕詩》作者白居易生平為例,成員以角色扮演的形式匯報,選取作者一代表性的生平事跡以話劇形式表達,從而說明白居易寫作大量古詩的原因,正是受著個人際遇和時代背景所影響。介紹新詩時,可邀請現代詩人到來,讓同學訪問以了解他的背景及寫作動機。

第五階段 - 小組匯報 (兩教師)

各小組輪流匯報。由於各組所探究的範疇與教師提供的主題關係密切,所以各組的匯報都能互補及增加成員對整個主題的認識。匯報時,其餘的組員皆是聽眾,教師除了是聽眾外,另一角色是協調及引導學生互相提問。每一組完成匯報後,應有數分鐘讓聽眾表達他們對是次匯報的意見。

第六階段 - 教師及學生評估結果 (兩教師)

合作探究法鼓勵教師及學生一起對各組的匯報結果作出評估(這評估大部分已在第五階段進行)。教師亦可在第三階段當小組進行探究時透過提問及觀察學生,提供進展性的評估。此外,評估的內容除了針對知識和概念外,也重視高層次的思考,例如學生如何解難及作出總結等技巧。評估模式也可用上筆試,例如:各小組就所探究的範疇擬定兩條問題,若全班有八組,則問題最多可有十六題。教師根據這些問題,設計成一份測驗卷給所有同學完成,部分問題舉例如下:

古詩最大的特點是什麼?

古詩的格律怎麼樣?

古詩有限字數嗎?

古詩和新詩在題材上有什麼不同?

你對同一首詩有不同的闡釋或感受嗎? 試舉例說明。

你認為理解一首詩的寫作背景有什麼好處?

3. 合作探究學習法所值得關注的問題及建議

合作探究學習法透過分組的活動雖然能提升學生的主動學習,且能有效地照顧各學生之個別差異,但我們不能否認這種教學模式仍有它的限制,這些限制主要有三方面,包括教師、學生和課室環境上的問題。

教師對合作探究學習法的誤解

合作探究學習法以學生為中心,教師的主要工作是為學生提供適當的學習材料及營造和諧的學習氣氛,讓學生自行進行小組學習。故採用此教學模式的教師,在課前所作的準備比採用傳統教學的教師來得多,尤其是當教師處於嘗試的初期,更感到與時間競賽的壓力。如果教師對這教學模式認識不深,或者認為這種學習方式比不上一向使用的,他們對合作探究學習法便更難接受了(陳錦榮, 2001)。不過,採用此法的豐富經驗的教師,則會在學生推行討論、活動、研習及互動式提問時感到輕鬆和放任自如,由權威的講述者變為一個友善的輔助者。

學生未能掌握社交技巧

學生有不同的學習風格,有的只要聆聽教師的講解,便能學得很好,有的則需在個別學習情況之下,成績才能大有進步。如果要他們以合作方式學習,可能出現學業倒退及情緒不安的局面,特別是當學生在小組內找不到他們願意交往的學習伙伴時。再者,此學習法要求所有學生都能融洽在小組內互相合作,完成所有學習的任務。然而,這些學習過程中所需要的技巧,例如指

導技巧、積極聆聽技巧、化解衝突技巧等，都不是短時間內可以掌握的，故教師應教授學生小組活動所需的社交技能 (Barnes & Todd, 1995)。因此，教師在接受專業培訓時，導師也應盡量提供分組學習的機會，讓他們去感受分組合作探究的經歷，我們當中一位筆者對此亦有一些行動研究的報導 (Hui, 2002)。為要學生能掌握有關的社交技能，教師必須在課堂上給予正式指導，但不宜操之過急，每次小組活動只需要練習一項社交技能便可。至於技能的選擇方面，則要視乎個別活動的類型及目標。此外，如果學生的學習動機能夠提高，會對他們的合作有利。所以實施合作學習初期，教師宜多注重小組表揚，以獎勵各成員。

課室與學校空間的限制

除採用活動教學的學校外，香港的一般傳統學校的課室檯椅擺放方式都是一行行的，這種擺放方式並不適合進行分組討論。由於課室面積小而學生多，在討論時，小組之間難免出現聲音，互相干擾，妨礙討論的進行 (陳錦榮, 2001)。故在採用合作學習法時，教師應盡量利用課室的空間，例如改變課室檯椅的擺放方式，將它們組成多個小組閣，這有助學生溝通及方便工作。教師亦應鼓勵學生輕聲說話，以免妨礙其他組別同學進行活動。教師亦可把不同組別分派到不同的活動程序及地點，例如把部分組別調配到禮堂進行討論、帶領部分組別到圖書館搜集資料等，不同的組別在同一時間於不同地點去進行不同程序的活動，有助減少互相干擾的情況。

五・總結

合作學習具有穩固的理論基礎，主要是憑藉心理學和社會學兩方面作為依據。外國學者對合作學習課堂上的研究比其他的教學方法要多。不過，這些研究主要是在外地進行，例如歐、美、以色列等國家。香港以華人居多，一向以重視群體活動見稱的華人 (Bond & Hwang, 1986; Earley, 1989)，他們相信成員的命運繫於群體的力量 (Leung, 1996)，在本地採用合作探究學習法，理應比外國來得更有效。不過真正的效果還有待本地教師實施之後，才可證明。近年在香港曾進行的一個研究，發現大多數教師均未能有效地利用異質分組及利用適當的大小組別的優點讓學生進行合作學習。從教師所設計的活動當中，不難看到合作學習的元素，可惜數量不多，質量也不算好，故仍需要對有關人士作進一步的培訓 (陳錦榮, 2001)。

至於香港教師們能否接受一些較為創新的教學策

略，靈活變通地去處理課堂的情況，再去尋求一種獨特的和能迎合自己班上學生的合作探究模式，則全賴教師創造力的培養，令他們瞭解到在認識這種模式的有關基本理念和實例外，還須有整合已有經驗和樂於接受挑戰的能力，這亦是目前教師教育課程中所欠缺的一環 (許明輝, 2002)。

本文說出了合作學習的優點，然而這種教學模式亦有欠缺的地方，「合作探究學習法」並不能完全取代其他的教學方法，因為各種教學方法都有它的利弊，教師不宜只選一種方法便輕信它是對學生學習最有效，即使教師曾就這方法在學生身上體驗到學習的成功。其實選用哪種教學法取決於學習材料的性質及內容 (Galton, Hargreaves, Comber, Wall, & Pell, 1999) 和學生的學習風格，但願立志從事教育的有心老師們，能幫助學生愉快地學習。

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A Study of the Roles and Duties of Secondary 1 to 3 Form Teachers in Hong Kong Secondary Schools

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The expectations of school administrators, teachers, parents and students on form teachers at secondary 1 to 3 levels, the feelings and opinions of form teachers, and their roles and duties in a local subsidized secondary school were studied intensively by interviews and questionnaires as a pilot. It was found that the roles of junior form teachers were important and their responsibilities were ever increasing. Duties of form teachers could be grouped into four areas: Daily Classroom Duties, Class Club Duties, Student Counselling and Communication with Parents. Students expected their form teachers to care for them and help them learn and grow. Parents appreciated the bridging role of form teachers. School administrators recognized the importance of effective form teachers to the good management of a school. Form teachers themselves wanted an effective and fair Form Teacher System and to spend more time on educational issues.

After the pilot, 1007 teachers from 85 schools were studied by referring to the questionnaire on the roles and duties of form teachers in junior forms. The data were then analyzed and some suggestions were proposed focusing on the problems found.

香港初中班主任的角色及職責

本研究透過詳細測試一所標準津貼中學的學校行政人員、初中班主任、資深老師、學生及家長進行訪問及問卷調查，研究他們對班主任角色及職責的看法，發現初中班主任之角色甚為重要及職責日益繁重。班主任的工作有四大範疇，包括處理日常班務、班會事宜、學生輔導及家長聯繫。訪問中也發現學生期望班主任能照顧他們的學習及幫助他們成長。家長感謝班主任能作溝通的橋樑。行政人員確認了高效能的班主任對學校的管理甚為重要。而班主任自己卻期望能較專注於教育性質的事務上並且在任教的學校裏有一個公平有效的班主任制度。

測試後，筆者進行一個較大型的研究，有85所中學參與，共1007位老師接受了問卷調查。資料收集後，經數據分析，筆者嘗試針對問題作出一些討論及建議。

Introduction

In Hong Kong, there are normally around 40 students in a class at the junior secondary levels. Usually one teacher is assigned to a class as the form teacher to look after the students' welfare, moral education and social development (Yau and Luk, 1986). Form teachers have to communicate well with their students to understand their needs and to establish good relationships with them so as to carry out their duties smoothly and efficiently. In fact, many form teachers

have to assume part of a parent's role in the caring for their students. Form teachers act as twist-ties that bind together the community, the home and the school (Lam and Ho, 1995). They have to plan how to make use of the limited time available in form periods to handle class affairs and settle students' problems. As our society develops, the complexity of the job nature of a form teacher increases rapidly.

The adoption of the nine-year compulsory free education policy in 1979 has ever since burdened our form teachers. All students have to attend schools up to the age of fifteen irrespective of whether they are interested in study or not. It

has been observed that there are many more student problems since then. Although there is additional manpower support of a part-time social worker from the Education Department, the help is very limited. It is acknowledged that form teachers are still the best persons to counsel students since very often a trust relationship has already in existence between them (Yau and Luk, 1986). Cheng and others (1997) mentioned the importance of a well-planned tailor-made school-based policy with clear and directional objectives to guide the work of teams of teachers to attain school goals. Thus, an effective Form Teacher System is of great importance in a secondary school to facilitate form teachers to perform their duties.

Nowadays, schools usually appoint teachers, as special duties in addition to normal classroom teaching, to look after certain important areas of school functions, such as discipline, moral education, sex education, civic education, extra-curricular activities, guidance and counselling, careers guidance, and among many others, including Form Teachers. Then what are the expectations of school administrators, teachers, parents and students on form teachers, especially at secondary 1 to 3 levels when students need a lot of care and guidance? What are the feelings and opinions of form teachers about their work and on their Form Teacher System? These are the research questions that this paper intends to investigate.

Focus of the Study

In late 1997, a pilot study was carried out which aimed at investigating the current roles and duties of form teachers at junior levels in a local subsidized secondary school, and exploring the expectations of school administrators, teachers, parents and students on form teachers. An intensive case study of the school was carried out. An appropriate questionnaire and interview protocols were developed and tested for the study.

In 1999-2000, the main study was carried out on 85 secondary schools involving 1007 teachers. This paper mainly reported the results obtained from the case study carried out and the initial analyses of the data obtained from the main study.

Literature Review

Different countries have different education systems. Therefore, the expected role and duties of a form teacher are quite different in different parts of the world. The education system in China in early 1900s was much influenced by the United States of America. The education system in Hong Kong was originated from China but was much influenced by the British system gradually. In Hong Kong, a form teacher is sometimes called as a class teacher. The term form teacher will be used in this paper.

In the literature, it has been found that a form teacher could assume many types of roles, including but not limited to: as a parent to students (Lo & Fang, 1993; Yang & Wang, 1995; Yau & Luk, 1986), as a good friend to students (Lo & Fang, 1993), as a guidance or a counselor (Yau & Luk, 1986), as a significant tutor in students' development (Xin, 1990), as a moderator in school administration (Lam & Ho, 1995; Xin, 1990), as a classroom manager, instructor and organizer (Yang & Wang, 1995; Lo & Fang, 1993), as a facilitator to promote the class activities and class spirit (Meng, 1992), as a bridge between students and the school (Yang & Wang, 1995; Xin, 1990), as a bridge between subject teachers and students (Gan et al., 1995) and as a twist-tie to link up the school, the family and the society (Lo & Fang, 1993). Corresponding to those roles, there are a whole lot of duties for a form teacher. These roles and duties are expected to be different in different schools and in different education systems.

In the British system, the term tutor is used. It is the tutor who is to take care of a class of students. Generally, a junior form tutor has 3 types of duties, namely, to help students learn effectively in school, to help students' individual development, and to help students learn how to live and work with other people (Yau & Luk, 1986).

In China, a form teacher is responsible for the planning, organizing and exercising the various aspects of education, as well as unifying all educational resources for the class. The form teacher has the responsibility to follow and work under the direction of the Communist Party. With these principles in perspective, the duties of a form teacher in China are described as follows:

- (1) "to get acquainted with each individual student through observations, conversations and careful studying of the students' records;

- (2) to cultivate an energetic, aggressive yet unified group, and to seek out and nurture the affirmative members to become the core of the class, as well as to develop positive exposition and fine tradition through various aspects of education;
- (3) to pay special attention in selecting and nurturing the top students, and in observing the progress of those with potentials, thus motivating the entire class;
- (4) to provide different educational activities in accordance to the characteristic of each group in after-school hours or holidays through programs in association with the activities of the Communist Youth Party and the Youth Pioneers; and
- (5) to maintain a close relationship with the Communist Youth Party and the Youth Pioneers, parents, teachers of all subjects and educators in order to have a common understanding in what to ask for in a student, a unified pace, and a good cooperation, that a truly fine education may be sustained. (Yau & Luk, 1986)."

The importance of a form teacher is widely discussed in Mainland China. There seems to be a lot of expectations from the Chinese Government on form teachers. Meng (1992) described that in everyday life practice, the most appropriate and effective person to pursue moral education vigorously was the form teacher. He had to understand students, establish a class club, plan and fix the targets for the class, promote the class spirit and good customs, discipline the class, establish a healthy class public opinion, enrich class activities, insist the principle of socialism and collectivism. Ou-yang (1991) indicated that the work of a form teacher was the foundation work of moral education in school. He had to cultivate a person, to nurture them to become an ideal, moral, civilized, disciplined "four have" (i.e. with ideality, morality, culture & discipline) talented person. He also had to know about and practice continuously the principles of pedagogy, psychology, ethics, management, public relation and philosophy. Xin (1990) described that the education task of form teachers comprised of four aspects, namely organization, management, instruction and education. The main objective of their works should be to nurture people of satisfactory caliber of various types and various levels who would be able to face the modernization, the world and the future. Such an objective

was realized in the process of organization and management of a class of students as a whole. To achieve the objective, the form teacher had to learn more and study more.

As early as in September 1988, the Chinese Government has issued the Temporary Regulations for Secondary School Form teachers. There were eight prescribed main duties:

- (1) "to pursue political and moral education;
- (2) to foster students to complete their learning tasks;
- (3) to guide students in participating labor work assigned by the school;
- (4) to care about the extra-curricular activities of students;
- (5) to pursue classroom management;
- (6) to coordinate all subject teachers of the class to discuss about the educational work of his own class;
- (7) to do the evaluation and grading of students' moral behavior; and
- (8) to contact with parents and cooperate with them (Chang, 1992; Shen, & Kuo, 1995)."

In China, it is clear that a form teacher takes a very important role in the holistic development of students as well as to the entire education system. There are many expectations on form teachers that there was even a subject focusing on Form Teachers and a handbook describing their roles and duties (Xin, 1900). But in Hong Kong, the Form Teacher System seems to be not well recognized as in China. We do not have formal document or any working rules defining the working areas and quantities of work of a form teacher.

In Hong Kong, there was a job description of a form teacher listed out in the suggested guideline of guidance work for secondary schools in 1986. So far this seemed to be the only official document describing the duties of a form teacher in guidance work. The term class teacher was used instead of the common one form teacher.

"..... the class teacher acts as a first contact in the delivery of pupil guidance. His role is to assist in:

- (i) "managing classroom discipline;
- (ii) identifying problems encountered by pupils;
- (iii) orientation and encouraging pupils to approach the guidance team or the school social worker whenever there is a need;

- (iv) making referrals to the guidance team or the school social workers, when and where appropriate;
- (v) cooperating with the guidance teachers or the school social workers in the intervention process, and
- (vi) assisting in the implementation of development and preventive program (Education Department, 1986)."

Yau and Luk (1986) carried out a research studying the functions and duties of form teachers in Hong Kong secondary schools. In the research, the information was mainly collected from teachers from 130 government and aided schools. The findings of the study showed that there were five main types of duties of a form teacher: counselling students, understanding students, motivation of class spirit, as a bridge between the students and other people such as the school, the parents, and other teachers, and also doing clerical work such as collecting fees. Also, the study suggested to strengthen the traditional Form Teacher System in three main areas: conducting teacher training programs, providing school supporting facilities and workload reduction. Lam and Ho (1995) analyzed the functions of form teachers in secondary school administration and categorized them into five areas: academic, discipline, general affairs, public relations and personnel. In Hong Kong, the duties of a form teacher are usually school-based and there seems to be no official duties as specified by the government.

In the literature mentioned above, it was found that, very often, the duties of a form teacher mentioned were mainly expectations from teachers themselves or from the school administration or even from their Central Governments. There is little information related to the expectations from students or parents. In a survey "Super-talk through Internet" held from the 6th to 31st, October 1997 (Ming Po, 1997), there were 74.95% of 535 young people indicated that they needed care from the teachers. Did this indicate a need to review the guidance work in school? Besides, 47.48% of them showed great opposition to the proposal of establishing a Teachers' Day. Was it an indicator to point out that our teachers were

not performing well? Or was it just a voice to reinforce a possible unsatisfactory teacher-student relationship? Therefore, it is hoped that with this study a more updated, relevant and holistic description of the roles and duties of form teachers would be obtained through the study of the expectations from various stakeholders including the school administrators, parents and students.

Pilot Study:

Sample

The target school in the pilot study was a well-developed, symmetric¹, Christian subsidized secondary school that had most of her students having good banding². There were altogether fifteen classes at secondary levels 1 to 3. The students mainly came from neighboring private and public housing estates.

Method

A participatory method, using interviews and a questionnaire survey (Merriam, 1990), was employed focusing on an intensive case study of a secondary school. One of the three researchers of this pilot study was actually a form teacher of the junior levels of the school. The pilot study consisted of two main parts, namely, various structured interviews with school administrators, teachers, students and parents, and a questionnaire survey for all the secondary 1 to 3 form teachers.

Data from students, form teachers and senior teachers were collected through separate small group interviews. Six junior form students, six junior form teachers and six senior teachers in the school executive committee were interviewed. All of them were randomly selected. Three randomly selected parents from junior forms were interviewed first by telephone and then face-to-face at the Parents' Night. Also, a classroom observation of an actual form period was videotaped.

After the initial analyses of the information obtained from the interviews, a questionnaire was developed to survey the

1 Symmetric school: there are equal number of classes from secondary one to five so that most of the students do not have to apply for other schools when they are promoted to higher forms.

2 Banding in secondary school (to year 2000-2001), all primary six students in a district will be graded into five bandings according to their results in school by the Education Department of Hong Kong. The best 20% of students are graded as band one, and so on. A school is considered as having good banding if the majority of her students are of band one and two. At the advent of Education Reform, now 5 bandings is reduced into 3, since September 2001.

opinions of all the fifteen secondary 1 to 3 form teachers.

Altogether fifteen completed questionnaires were collected from all the junior form teachers. Eleven of the form teachers were female. Ten were GM/SGM teachers and the remaining were CM/AM teachers. Six form teachers had two to five years of teaching experience, and another six had more than six years of teaching experience. Only one had just one year of teaching experience. However, two did not disclose their number of years of teaching experience.

Descriptive statistical analyses were performed on the data collected from the questionnaire survey.

Result

In this section, results obtained from the pilot were reported.

(a) From the interviews:

With Students

The interview with the junior form students showed that they did have a great deal of expectations of their form teachers. Most of the students emphasized the need of caring from their form teachers, their leading abilities to manage the class such as acting as a judge or a moderator among students. The form teachers were expected also as a bridge between the school, the students and the parents. To the students, they did not seem to have an understanding of the Form Teacher System in school, but they did mention that more form periods were necessary for the form teachers to help the classes handle classroom affairs. They had no adverse comment on the ongoing Form Teacher System.

With Form Teachers

The interview with the junior form teachers was a fruitful discussion on their duties related to time-consumption, meaningfulness, urgency and difficulties. The form teachers mentioned some important facts and contextual features of the school. In general, they realized their importance to the development of the students. However, they felt that some important and urgent duties assigned by the school did not have education values. It was always this non-educational related trivial work that was the most time-consuming and made them feel tired and exhausted. These duties would well be taken up by other non-teaching staff. Moreover, the current

Form Teacher System in the school was not encouraging to them in terms of using the form periods for educational activities.

In the observation of the conduction of a form period, it was observed that the form teacher was acting as a facilitator to help the class club chairperson, a student of the class, to promote the class-club and school activities. The teacher also acted as an advisor to remind students how to prepare for the coming academic tests. In that form period, the teacher also carried out an educational activity to convey a message of moral education through a game, to look after the class discipline as well as to control the pace of teaching. It was observed that the form teacher had to do a lot of preparatory work in order to perform his/her jobs effectively. It could be seen that a form teacher was the spirit of the class, and form periods were important to students to learn new things other than academic subject matters. The form period was also vital to form teachers in understanding the needs of their students.

With School Administrators

The information collected from the senior teachers showed that, from the viewpoint of the school administration, the present Form Teacher System had already taken care of the needs of the students and facilitated the work of the teachers. They recognized the importance of the effectiveness of a form teacher to the successful management of the school, however, they commented that it was very much depended on the teachers themselves, their characters, abilities and maturity, for carrying out the duties of a form teacher effectively.

With Parents

It was found that most of the parents interviewed relied on the form teachers to monitor their children in the school. They had great confidence on the form teachers and relied very much on them to take care of their children. They appreciated very much the "bridging role" of the form teachers. However, parents did not have any idea about the school Form Teacher System.

(b) From the questionnaire survey:

The questionnaire compiled after the analysis of the results obtained from the interviews consisted four sections as follows:

Section I: Form teachers were asked to respond to items which were related to the Daily Classroom Duties, Class Club Duties, Counselling Duties and Communication with Parents, with reference to the amount of workload, their educational importance and the requirement for formal training;

Section II: The personal feelings and opinions of being a form teacher;

Section III: Opinions on how to increase the effectiveness of a form teacher; and

Section IV: Opinions on the existing Form Teacher System in schools.

Since there were only 15 questionnaires, no sophisticated statistical analyses were performed. Observations collected are summarized as follows:-

Section I: The Four Categories of Duties

(A) Daily Classroom Duties:

The form teachers indicated that the workload in writing receipts and handling students' various application forms was heavy but not important in terms of education values. The more important work was to look for missing students, and writing reports and remarks for students. It was the latter that training was required. Other than that, formal training for performing daily classroom duties seemed not necessary.

(B) Class Club Duties:

The form teachers agreed that the workload occupied in the management of class discipline was heaviest and this duty was the most important. The workload on promotion of class club affairs was also heavy and the duty was again important. Special training in these areas was necessary. On the whole, the workload, the importance in education values and the need of training were greater than that of daily classroom duties.

(C) Student Counselling:

Form teachers considered that the workload on writing responses to and comments on students' diaries, counselling and liaising with students was heavy. However, all of these duties, and the latter two in particular, were important duties of form teachers. Generally speaking, the workload on counselling students was heavy and indispensable in terms of education values. Moreover, quite a number of teachers

opined that training on techniques on counselling emotional students was needed.

(D) Communication with Parents:

The workload on liaising with parents of students was not so heavy, but the job was found to be important. Training was considered necessary before formal meeting was held with parents. Home visit was not a common practice for the school and, up to 1999, no Parent-Teacher Association has been formed.

(E) The Comparison of the Four Main Types of Duties

On the whole, daily classroom duties, which were considered to be relatively less meaningful and important, occupied most of the time of a form teacher. However, these duties could be taken up by other non-teaching staff as they were relatively less difficult to handle. Student counselling, which was not easy to handle, was considered to be of utmost importance. For this reason, proper training and support from schools on student counselling were deemed to be necessary.

Section II: Feelings and Opinions from Form Teachers

Form teachers did maintain a good relationship with students though the workload of the former was heavy. Time constraint severely affected the performance of form teachers. As negative feelings and responses for being form teachers were expressed by certain form teachers, greater school support was needed in order to rectify the situation.

Section III: To Increase the Effectiveness of the System

In order to increase the effectiveness of form teachers, it was found that the workload of form teachers ought to be reduced especially regarding those unimportant and miscellaneous duties. Clerical work would better be taken up by school clerks to help alleviate the burden of form teachers. The arrangement of experience sharing sessions for form teachers was helpful. In addition, it was suggested that the school should release the form teachers for at least a year or so after they had served as school teachers for several consecutive years.

Section IV: Opinions on the Existing Form Teacher System

Form teachers reiterated that their performance would likely affect the effectiveness of the school, and hence the

existing Form Teacher System needed to be improved. It was encouraging to note that quite a number of respondents indicated that every school teacher should have a chance to be a form teacher. It was also found that form teachers were not satisfied with the existing workload ratio between form teachers and non-form teachers.

Main Study:

Sample

In mid-2000, 85 out of 86 randomly selected secondary schools in Hong Kong participated in the main study. A total of 1,007 copies of completed questionnaires were collected, an average of 11.8 per school. Normally, there were 15 junior form teachers per school, and hence the response rate was around 78.7%. Descriptive statistical analyses were carried out to find out the views of the form teachers on various aspects of their work.

Method

The data collected from the questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS software.

Result and Discussion

The results of the main study were presented in Tables 1a to 1e. The following sections highlighted the important findings. In general, the results found were in line with those in the pilot study.

Section I: The 4 Categories of Duties

(A) Daily Classroom Duties:

It was found that the workload on preparing receipts and handling students' application forms was heavy but less important in terms of education values. Trainings on writing reports and reference letters were considered to be important by form teachers. As such, there was an urgent need to upgrade their language ability. We eagerly hoped that the government would develop concrete proposals to promote bi-literacy and tri-lingualism for teachers in the near future. Many of the daily classroom duties, such as collection of money and reply slips, were considered to be trivial and time-consuming, and these tasks could well be taken up by non-teaching staff. In the

Policy Address 2001, our Chief Executive, the Honorable Tung Chee Hwa, had promised an annual provision of \$500 million to schools to free teachers from non-teaching duties so as to create a better working environment for them. Many schools could therefore, spend their allocation of fund to employ more staff members or purchase services from outside to alleviate their teachers' workload.

(B) Class Club Duties:

The main study reviewed that managing classroom discipline was the most important yet time-consuming duty of form teachers. Special training in this area was necessary. Generally speaking, the workload, the educational importance, and the need of training related to class club duties were greater than that of daily classroom duties. The establishment of the \$5 billion Continuing Education Fund in 2001 to support life-long learning in Hong Kong has fostered school teachers to study relevant training programmes. This new subsidy would help build a culture of continuing professional development and support many more teachers to equip and upgrade themselves.

(C) Student Counselling:

Form teachers of secondary 1 to 3 found that the counselling of disruptive and emotional students was the most time-consuming (Table 1a: part C student counselling the "agree" index = 4.4016 [Behavioural Counselling]; with 1= lowest, and 5= highest), but most important in educational value (the "agree" index = 4.5763[EQ Counselling]) and most urgent for training (the "agree" index = 4.6172[EQ Counselling]) among all other aspects of form teachers' work. Recently, the Social Welfare Department in Hong Kong issued a report indicated that there was a sharp increase of child abuse from 1,100 cases in 1999 to 1,249 cases in the first half-yearly of 2001, already outnumbering the total number of cases in the whole year of 2000 (Hong Kong Economic Times, 22 October 2001). Such a phenomenon may be attributed to a lack of knowledge of parents on how to handle children with behavioural problems. As such, these corroborated the importance and urgent need of teachers' or maybe even parents' training on counselling so as to facilitate their work in this particularly difficult role.

(D) Communication with Parents:

When the pilot was carried out in the target school, there was no Parent-Teacher Association (PTA). However, in 2001, a well-established PTA was already in place, with teachers working with parents in good partnership.

The results showed that teachers irrespective of their years of teaching experience had identified the task of "face-to-face interview with parents" as the most time-consuming but important duty. It was trendy that the more parents were involved in PTA especially at decision-making level, the more difficult for teachers to deal with parents, unless a school culture of appropriate degree of mutual understanding and co-operation had been established. That could explain why some form teachers had indicated that it was an area rather in need of training as well. Providing more opportunity for parents and teachers to work together in school will foster a better understanding among one another and was extremely beneficial in establishing such a culture.

Section II: The Comparison of the Four Main Types of Duties

The main study reviewed that daily classroom duties occupied most of the time of a form teacher. These duties were viewed as not so meaningful, nor difficult to perform. However, they were considered to be the most important, a situation that was not in line with the findings from the pilot study. The employment of Teaching Assistants to look after the daily classroom duties could be a good idea to free teachers from this non-educational work.

Student counselling was considered as the most meaningful yet the most difficult duty to well handle. In this case, proper training and support from schools or the government were necessary.

The least agreed findings between the main study and the pilot test was that Communication with Parents occupied least of the time of a form teacher. This implied that either form teachers seldom contacted parents unless their children have serious disciplinary problems, or parents appreciated the bridging role of form teachers and hence, contacting form teachers was considered to be unnecessary. Moreover, PTAs tried to help form teachers in various ways. Among the least

meaningful and least needed (Table 1b) jobs, form teachers placed Class Club Duties at the bottom rank. In the pilot test, Class Club duties, on the whole, were considered to be greater than Daily Classroom duties in terms of workload, importance in education values and the need of training. These results showed that both Daily Classroom duties and Class Club duties, though different in nature, were considered to be less meaningful and less difficult by the form teachers.

Daily classroom duties and Class Club duties were routine work but the latter has long lasting effects. Student counselling and Communication with Parents were occasional tasks and impressive that the effects were easily noticed. In fact, all jobs were important and need professional training.

Section III: Feelings and Opinions of the Form Teachers

Given the workload of form teachers was heavy, time constraint became a major factor that severely affected the effectiveness of form teachers, though respondents opined that form teachers would have the privilege to get closer to their students. All in all, form teachers, both experienced and inexperienced, needed greater support from their schools.

To ensure the success of current education reforms, it was understandable that teachers need profound support. Teachers believed that it is within their power and responsibility as class teachers to exert control over the class. However, just having expertise, qualifications, and curriculum knowledge in teaching, alone or in combination, would not make a teacher effective. The ability and availability of time of a teacher to understand the students they taught, to react and respond to the needs of each student in a class through positive interaction and other skills, are necessary to build a positive classroom climate³, and eventually a successful education.

The key problem of teachers in Hong Kong nowadays was time constraint. It was not easy for them to have enough time to talk with their students in a relaxed and comfortable manner. We should try our best to enable our teachers to have a balance among continuous professional education, their daily school work and their family life as well. This arrangement

3 Classroom climate is defined in Bluestein J. (1988) "21st Century Discipline - Teaching Students Responsibility" 'Self-central' Scholastic Inc., Jefferson City, as the synthesis of the physical, intellectual and emotional environments created by the interactions among and between the teachers and students in a classroom, which either support or inhibit learning.

for teachers should be put as the top priority on the agenda of the education reform in the new century.

Undoubtedly, as the editors of Teachers' Digest, July 2001 said, schools could adopt the support measures according to their own situation and needs. Nevertheless, if activities such as "pre-school-term induction" could be arranged for secondary 1 "new-comers" during the summer vacation to help them adapt to the new learning environment, the results could be more fruitful. It could somehow lessen the heavy burden of workload of the form teachers in junior forms.

It was essential to allow time for revivification and reflection of the teachers who were exhausted with their teaching duties. It was when the teachers understood what constituted a comfortable classroom climate and were willing to implement procedures and activities to reach that end, that success would be achieved by most students. This understanding brought with it an awareness that teachers' behaviors might need to be repeated, altered, or eliminated in order to maintain a consistent positive climate. Such awareness was not easily achieved unless there was substantial support from the principal or from the school.

With a view to supporting and motivating the form teachers, some incentive initiatives, such as a big smile, words of praise or prizes for the outstanding form teachers, etc., could be offered and would definitely be well-received by the form teachers.

Section IV: To Increase the Effectiveness of the System

In order to increase the effectiveness of form teachers, it was found that the workload of form teachers ought to be reduced especially those miscellaneous duties. Clerical work would be better taken up by other non-academic staff to alleviate the burden of form teachers. Along with it, the procedure of the form teachers' jobs could be streamlined. The arrangement of experience sharing sessions for form teachers would be helpful. Also, the school should release the form teachers for at least a year or so after they had served as form teachers for a number of consecutive years. Possible solutions to these problems were discussed as follows:

(A) Using the Financial Support from the Government:

Public-sector schools could maximize the use of the Capacity Enhancement Grant (CEG) (HK\$ 300,000 for each secondary school in 2001 as stated in Policy Address, 2001)

to relieve teachers' workload so that they could concentrate more on meeting the diverse learning needs of their students. For instance, by making use of CEG, some schools employed a few teaching assistants to take up teachers' workload on preparing teaching materials, administrative duties and processing of student information, while some schools engaged several secondary seven graduates of the school to provide tutorial classes for secondary 2 and 3 students who were poor performers in the English Language subject. By so doing, teachers or form teachers could spend more time in designing an appropriate curriculum for their students, devising different teaching strategies for the periods, and providing guidance to students with learning difficulties or with disciplinary problems.

(B) Providing Clear and Detailed Guidelines for Form Teachers:

Quite a number of schools had well-documented Teachers' Handbooks for their teachers to follow. For instance, there were two well written school-based teachers' handbooks (Good Hope School, 1998 and Tung Wah Group of Hospitals, 1998). One of which has put down a comprehensive list of duties for form teachers on 1st September (the first day of the semester) and the roles expected of form teachers.

Insofar the jobs and duties of form teachers in general were not so specific, The Teachers' Digest(2001) suggested 4 main themes for the form periods:

- (1) Making full use of ones' time: prepare and draw up a working schedule;
- (2) Having good study methods: effective memory methods;
- (3) Having a clear image: I grow up this way; and
- (4) Aiming for higher goals: four steps of setting targets.

The Education Department had organized a number of professional development programs for the teachers in the past years. Some programs were commented to be helpful in assisting teachers to enhance the self-awareness of their students and improving their academic achievements. Teachers could benefit from attending all these kinds of programmes in the future if available.

(C) Experience Sharing in Counselling and Discipline

Form teachers treasured the chance of experience sharing, and in particular, experiences on counselling. Teachers preferred to discuss the scenarios of different cases and share

the solutions among themselves. Counselling techniques such as ice breaking, listening, acceptance, empathic understanding, structuring, reflection, clarification, leading, respect, genuineness, confrontation, immediacy, self-disclosure, and termination, etc., are useful for form teachers to get acquaintance with.

What was also urgent for form teachers to handle was disciplinary problem. Form teachers needed time to build up good teacher-student relationship with their class and to change their own minds about the concept of discipline. In some instances, discipline in the 21st century means to give up the old values dated back to the industrial revolution, e.g. getting ahead through obedience, dedication, and persistence, etc. At present days of the information age, business leaders tended to make use of skills such as networking, co-operation, negotiation, flexibility, creativity and divergence, etc.

Discipline in the 21st century could pose quite a challenge for form teachers who were unfamiliar with the win-win management models. Support from their principals would encourage these teachers to try new approaches and to help build confidence in developing new techniques. It was important to realize that implementing successful techniques in the classroom took much time and effort. A win-win approach, which involved relearning and retraining, could take a form teacher a number of years for full implementation.

(D) To mitigate negative feelings:

It was expected that teachers did express their negative feelings and responses as being form teachers and hence, they would like to abstain from the duty as form teachers for a year or two. The authors affirmed that open communications among different stakeholders were strongly recommended.

(E) To promote life-long learning:

Despite the pressure of economic downturn on public finances, our government's resolution in investing in education remained unshaken (Policy Address, 2001). The trend for life-long learning became even more prominent through the Government's strong support of people who took part in life-long learning initiatives in order to meet the needs in the 21st century. The culture of life-long learning should be promoted in schools as well.

Section V: The Opinions on the Existing System

The data of the main study confirmed what was found in the pilot test that the effectiveness of form teachers would affect the effectiveness of a school, and hence, the existing Form Teacher System needed to be improved. It was astonished to discover that many respondents indicated that every school teacher should have a chance to serve as a form teacher. It seemed that the existing workload ratio between form teachers and non-form teachers should be reviewed in many schools.

The respondents suggested some new practices, for example, the establishment of a "Double Form Teachers System" with 2 form teachers looking after one class. Some schools had tried this system and found it to be beneficial.

Generally speaking, the results obtained from the questionnaire survey indicated that the form teachers themselves recognized their importance in school education, that they have an important role in taking care of the full development of students, affecting their attitudes to life, their behavior and their growth in a positive manner. But at the present moment, they were not so satisfied with the working environments. They further opined that certain important and "urgent" duties were trivial and time-consuming which made them feel exhausted and yet these duties did not have much education values. It was suggested that these duties could well be taken up by clerks. When form teachers had difficulties with their work, help and support from the school should be provided as far as possible. Moreover, relevant staff development programmes were essential to the success of form teachers. As the existing Form Teacher System was not clearly defined and well structured, nor was it encouraging to be the form teachers, something must be done to improve the present situation.

Conclusions

On the whole, the results obtained from both the qualitative and quantitative studies were promising and meaningful. A questionnaire was developed after the qualitative study. The current expectations of form teachers by different stakeholders were gathered and the difficulties faced by the form teachers were found. Students expected their form teachers to care for them and help them learn and grow. Parents appreciated the bridging role of form teachers.

School administrators recognized the importance of effective form teachers to the good management of a school. However, form teachers considered that their work was important to the development of students and they wanted to spend more time on educational issues rather than handling clerical affairs. In general, the duties of form teachers could be grouped into four areas: Daily Classroom Duties, Class Club Duties, Student Counselling and Communication with Parents. Form teachers indicated the importance of counselling work and the necessity of proper training in this area. They did not favor the heavy non-academic trivial work that might be taken up by clerical staff. In order to enhance the effectiveness of the form teachers, a closer look at the fairness of workload allocation in school was necessary.

As far as opinions on the present form teachers system were concerned, the respondents considered that every teacher could be appointed as a form teacher. School teachers became "specialists" in taking care of specific areas of work as a result of the division of labor in schools, such as taking up specific responsibilities like moral education, handling disciplinary problems, implementing extra-curricular activities, etc. Under this arrangement, form teachers were likely to act as front-line workers handling all types of work and would refer students to "specialists" only when they felt incapable or inappropriate. Therefore a responsible form teacher could help relieve the burden of "specialists". Their working areas were not specific but they were the moderators of all kinds of specific work. Also, school policies could be effectively implemented through form teachers. Thus, the quality of form teachers that would affect the effectiveness of a school should be enhanced.

Implications

When young people lost their directions, they tended to dissipate themselves blindly into entertainment, illusions of the mass media, and fun-seeking companionship (Lam & Ho, 1995). Form teachers, being the most important leading models to the young people, are expected to be the most appropriate front-line educator to help the development of students. This implies that we need devoted and conscientious form teachers. A good Form Teacher System will foster the proper functioning of form teachers. Hence, the following

strategies are recommended for an effective Form Teacher System:

- (i) The appointment of form teachers should use a rotation system so that teachers would not be appointed for more than two to three consecutive years as a form teacher;
- (ii) The duty of a form teacher should be taken as equivalent to at least four teaching periods per week;
- (iii) There should be a coordinator at each level to facilitate the work of form teachers;
- (iv) A teacher should undergo staff development or proper training in counselling before he/she is being appointed as a form teacher; and
- (v) One or two clerical staff should be assigned to look after the non-educational affairs such as fees collection, etc.

In order to avoid form teachers from becoming passive or eventually burnt out as their workload became heavier and heavier day by day without any encouragement or supportive recognition, school administrators would be responsible to help form teachers keep a good and healthy balance of their lives by recognizing their efforts made, and develop a good atmosphere and culture in the working environment. From the management point of view, a clear form teacher policy and job descriptions are necessary to enhance the work efficiency of form teachers. These can bring the potential of form teachers into full play so as to attain high quality school education.

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Table 1a: Form Teachers' Opinions on the Workload, the Relative Importance and the Need of Professional Training Concerning the Roles and Duties of Secondary 1 to 3 Form Teachers in Hong Kong

A. Daily Classroom Duties	(1) workload	(2) relative importance	(3) the need of professional training
1. To complete the forms on student particulars	3.5005	3.1192	1.6593
2. To make roll calls	2.7106	3.7594	1.6309
3. To chase after leave application letters	3.4879	3.5710	1.7510
4. To chase after absentees or truants	3.3935	3.9595	2.3553
5. To collect the fees and prepare the receipts	3.7381	2.5443	1.5524
6. To fill in the academic results of students and make remarks accordingly	3.9829	4.1541	3.3837
7. To make record on students who have failed to bring homework and course books to the class	3.5736	3.3655	2.0610
8. To prepare the lesson records	2.7640	2.9540	2.1524
9. To deal with all application matters of students (e.g. travel subsidy)	4.2116	2.8679	2.1905
10. To prepare reference letters for the students	2.8529	3.5087	3.4219
B. Class Club Duties	(1) workload	(2) relative importance	(3) the need of professional training
1. To handle disciplinary problems in the class	4.3766	4.5248	4.3506
2. To coordinate and promote class affairs	3.9585	3.9757	3.7480
3. To arrange the seating plan	3.2984	3.6677	2.9889
4. To organise class clubs	3.2141	3.5365	3.1750
5. To hold meetings for the class clubs	2.9636	3.2452	3.1107
6. To arrange inter-class competitions	3.0910	3.1560	2.9847
7. To promote large-scale class club activities	3.4158	3.3462	3.2725
8. To hold regular weekly meetings	3.3068	3.4811	3.6296
9. To encourage students to join the extracurricular activities	3.4087	3.6390	3.3844
10. To establish a positive class culture	4.1270	4.4331	4.1768
C. Student Counselling	(1) workload	(2) relative importance	(3) the need of professional training
1. To liaise with the subject teachers of a particular student	3.5460	3.9707	3.2460
2. To communicate with the students outside classes	4.2719	4.4580	4.0730
3. To correct students' weekly reports	3.6900	3.8000	3.2940
4. Career counselling	2.9061	3.5355	3.9037
5. Behavioural counselling	4.4016	4.5707	4.5869
6. EQ counselling	4.3293	4.5763	4.6172
7. Study counselling	4.2099	4.4586	4.3229
8. Daily life counselling	3.8693	4.1805	4.1680
9. To attend inter-form class meetings to discuss class affairs	3.2573	3.6626	3.2933
10. Referring problematic students to personnel concerned	3.3263	4.0839	3.6890
11. To help resolve the contradiction among the students	4.0262	4.2556	4.1756
12. To help resolve the contradiction between the teachers and the students	3.5980	4.0941	4.0848
D. Communication with the students' parents	(1) workload	(2) relative importance	(3) the need of professional training
1. Telephone communication	3.9014	4.2336	3.7925
2. Face-to-face communication with parents	3.9396	4.3064	4.0888
3. Home visits	2.2805	3.0525	3.7484
4. To join parents' day and seminars	3.6307	3.7901	3.7163
5. To join case study meetings	3.2134	3.7090	3.6994
6. To join the Parent-Teacher Association	2.9731	3.2611	3.3209

N = 1007 Index: 1- the most disagreed
5 - the most agreed

Table 1b: Form Teachers' Opinions on the Time Needed, Meaningfulness, Necessity and Degree of Difficulty of the Four Main Types of Duties of Form Teachers

	The least time-consuming		The most time-consuming	
1. Time needed for completing the duties	D	B	C	A
	The least meaningful		The most meaningful	
2. According to the meaningfulness of the job nature	B	A	D	C
	The least needed		The most needed	
3. According to the necessity of the job nature	B	D	C	A
	The easiest task		The most difficult task	
4. According to the degree of difficulty of the job	A	B	D	C

A = Daily Classroom Duties

B = Class Club Duties

C = Student Counselling

D = Communication with Students' Parents

Table 1c: Personal Feelings and Opinions of Form Teachers

1	Giving me a sense of achievement	3.5751
2	Helping me to understand my students	4.1955
3	Bringing the distance between the students and I myself more closer	4.2482
4	Enriching my professional knowledge on counselling	3.5081
5	Enhancing my techniques on classroom management	3.6910
6	I need more support from the school	4.4604
7	Helping me to develop my career	3.1066
8	I need more support from the students' parents	4.1463
9	I feel frustrated	2.6785
10	Heavy workload	4.4412
11	Unable to support so many different roles at a time	3.8134
12	Prone to create emotional problems	3.3651
13	Bringing the potential into full play in face of the challenging job nature	3.3509
14	Enhancing my interest in teaching	3.1016
15	Destroying the relationship between the students and I myself	2.0680
16	What I contribute is in direct proportion to my efforts paid	2.7279
17	I feel tired	3.5452
18	I want to change my career	2.2917
19	I like my job	3.6911
20	Time constraint becomes my major obstacle in serving as a good form teacher	4.3401
21	Destroying the relationship between colleagues of the counselling team or the disciplinary team and I myself	2.1623
22	If there is an option for me, I would like to be the form teacher in next school year	2.7015
23	Destroying the relationship between other teaching staff and I myself	1.9249
24	A lack of professional training makes me unable to work as a good form teacher	2.6030
25	An outstanding form teacher and an outstanding school administrator should both enjoy words of praise and an equal chance of promotion	3.9634

N = 1007 Index: 1- the most disagreed

5 - the most agreed

Table 1d: From Teachers' Opinions on How to Enhance the Effectiveness of Form Teachers

1	To enhance the professional training on teaching	3.9919
2	To provide teachers with EQ counselling service	3.9970
3	To provide information for teaching	3.8443
4	To provide teachers with continuing education opportunities	4.1731
5	To increase opportunities for the exchange of ideas among teachers	4.0709
6	To streamline the daily duties of the form teachers	4.7364
7	To reduce the trivial duties of the form teachers	4.8079
8	To reduce the teaching load of the form teachers	4.5566
9	To empower the form teachers	3.9443
10	To establish a reward system which serves as an encouragement to the form teachers	3.9838
11	To increase the number of clerical staff in order to reduce the clerical workload of the form teachers	4.7664
12	Those who had consecutively served as form teachers would be allowed to abstain from being form teachers for one year	4.6036

N = 1007 Index: 1- the most disagreed
5 - the most agreed

Table 1e : Form Teachers' Opinions on the Form Teacher System

1	You understand the Form Teacher System	3.7897
2	You are satisfied with working under the present Form Teacher System	2.8220
3	You consider that there are rooms for improvement under the present Form Teacher System	4.0516
4	You consider that the school values the job of the form teachers	3.1469
5	You consider that the support from the school is enough for the form teachers	2.5375
6	You are satisfied with the job allocation between the form teachers and the non-form teachers	2.2034
7	You consider that the form teachers are very effective in working in line with the school administration	3.1340
8	You consider that the performance of the form teachers will affect the effectiveness of the school	4.1326
9	All teachers should have a chance to serve as form teachers	4.5587

N = 1007 Index: 1- the most disagreed
5 - the most agreed

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新加坡促進雙語教育

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新加坡南洋理工大學國立教育學院

新加坡的語言政策是一種“實用多語主義”。馬來語被定為國語，但從1987年起，英語不僅是主要的教學語言，也是最常用的官方語言。在學校裏四種官方語言都教。學好英語對於將來在新加坡本地和一些跨國組織更好地就業是非常關鍵的。因為新加坡的發展依靠於外國的投資。母語在小學(但不在中學)用作德育的教學語言。新加坡的雙語教育是很有代表性的模型。

新加坡的雙語教育有著長達50年的歷史。這50年的考驗證明新加坡選擇英語作為聯合多種單語言人口的力量是明智的。對母語能力的強調在繼承亞洲人的價值觀以及維持和亞洲周邊鄰國的交流方面取得了成果。英語的精通也有助於獲得英語國家的投資，同樣地，極好的母語水平也有助於建立和中國、印度、汶萊、馬來西亞和印度尼西亞之間的貿易關係。新加坡的雙語教育使得新加坡人受益，所以也將繼續堅持下去。

Promoting Bilingual Education in Singapore

The language policy of Singapore is one of "pragmatic multilingualism". The Malay Language is the National Language of Singapore, but English has become the principal medium of instruction in schools since 1987. All of the four official languages, i.e. Malay, Chinese (Mandarin), English and Tamil are taught in schools and students in Singapore Government and Government Aided schools must take their Mother Tongue as a compulsory subject. As Singapore is dependent on foreign investments, a good command of English is crucial for career advancement in local as well as multi-national companies. For cultural ballast, ethics is taught in the Mother Tongue in the Primary schools. The bilingual model of Singapore is representative of its multi-racial population.

The bilingual policy has been implemented for fifty years. In retrospect, making English Language the communicating language between the different racial groups is a wise move. But continual stress on the importance of the Mother Tongue is essential for maintaining the cultural values besides communicating with and doing business with our neighbouring countries like China, India, Malaysia, Indonesia and Brunei Darussalam. As the bilingual policy is beneficial to the Singapore people, it will be here to stay.

在新加坡的400萬人口中，78%是華人，14%是馬來西亞人，7%是印度人，其他的占1%。由於這種複雜多樣性，獨立後的新加坡設馬來語、華語、坦米爾語(南印度與錫蘭島人所用的語言)及英語為官方語言。然而，實際的語言環境遠比這複雜。一來因為大多數的華人將華語和方言混合使用，印度人也有不同的地方方言，如北印度語，唔魯都語(印度回教徒的語言)，Gujarati 和旁遮普語等。在不同種族之間的交流語言中，英語和馬來語用得較多。在1960年前，英語並不是用得很多。但在1990年的調查中，高達47.2%的新加坡人能用雙語交流，而在1970年，這個比例僅占19.

1%。總體來說，會英語和華語的人數在增加(Pakir, 1992)。

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在過去的20年，英語的使用使得不同種族之間得以保持較好的交流與融合。從1979年發起的“講華語運動”在10年前取得成功(Lee Kuan Yew, 1978; Mandarin Campaign Secretariat, 1989)，也使得華語在使用不同華語方言的人群中得以推廣。因為對大多數的新加坡人而言，英語並不是母語，所以新加坡就一直有意識地鼓勵新加坡人講標準的英語而不是“新加坡語”。因此“講好英語運動”在最近幾年發起。調查顯示，60%的被調查者受此運動影響而努力地講好英語(TheNewPaper, 4月20號，2002，第18版)。

新加坡的語言政策 --- 簡要回顧

為了給予在新加坡的所有種族以平等的對待，各黨派對華文教育的報告被採用。該報告宣稱，英語，華語，馬來語和坦米爾語應獲得同等的對待，都是指定的官方語言，都應該在學校裏教授。另外，雙語教育和三語教育也應作為部分中小學的教學目標，自1959人民行動黨執政以來，馬來語就被指定為國語。

儘管雙語政策早從1956年起就開始在中小學實施，但第二語言作為必修課卻是較後一些的事情。為了實現1956年設想的社會多語言管理目標，新加坡政府實施了一系列詳細的指導方針。這些包括：授課時間，學科，語言匹配，考試和達標要求(Gopinathan, 1977, 1980)。具體實施時間如下：

- 1960年 -- 第二語言成為小學的必修課
- 1966年 -- 第二語言成為中學的必修課
- 1966年 -- 第二語言成為小學的考試科目
- 1969年 -- 第二語言成為中學的考試科目
- 1972年 -- 增加第二語言的課時，在1973年從占總課時的18%增加到25%，1975年又增加到40%。
- 1975年 -- 在小學畢業離校考試中，第一語言和第二語言的分數比重相等。

對官方語言應用的重視也滲透到家庭，如電視節目的語言選擇。使用華語地方方言的電視節目改為華語，以使華語成為家庭交流語言，甚至政府服務部門也要求提高華語水平。

表一：各種官方語言的讀寫能力(Literacy)比較 -- 1970年，1980年，1990年

語言	1970年	1980年	1990年
英語	46.7%	56.0%	65.0%
華語	49.4%	59.6%	61.5%
馬來語		16.6%	16.0%
坦米爾語		3.3%	3.4%

資料來源：

1990年的資料來自10%的樣本

1970年的資料來自Eddie C.Y.Kuo(1980)

1980年的資料來自人口普查

1990年(最新人口普查資料報告)

Gopinathan, Pakir, Ho, and Saravanan(1999)

表二：主要家庭語言比較(1980年和1990年)

語言	1980年	1990年
英語	11.6%	20.3%
華語	10.2%	26.0%
華語地方方言	59.5%	36.7%
馬來語	13.9%	13.4%
坦米爾語	3.1%	2.9%
其他	1.7%	0.7%

資料來源：

人口普查(1990)(最新資料報告)

1990年的資料來自10%的樣本

Gopinathan, Pakir, Ho, and Saravanan(1999)

上述表格一與表格二資料顯示，教育機會的延伸帶來全面讀寫能力的穩步提高。到1990年，普及率達到了90%。儘管在英語和華語方面取得了很大的進步，但英語的讀寫水平並不理想，只有65%(1990年)。家庭語言仍然是華語和華語地方方言。這種現象能夠解釋英語讀寫的 low 水平，特別是老年人英語讀寫的 low 水平。

1978年的“教育部報告”(Goh, 1979)和“講華語運動”(Lee, 1978)突出了對雙語政策的關注，有關雙語政策的一些重要的發現有：

- (1) 對學生能力多方面的測查(即考試，閱讀書籍和報紙)顯示學生的水平很差。
- (2) 該報告也回顧了各種用來提高語言水平的方法，並指出其中一些並不是十分有效的。如增加語言授課時間等。

學校體系的改變

這次對雙語政策失敗的測查導致了學校體系主要結構化的改變，最重要的是中小學的分流。從小四起，學生就分配成“普通”，“擴展”和“單語言”的流向。在小三的分流考試中，第一語言和第二語言占同樣的比重。在中學，三個流向分別是“特殊”，“快捷”和“普通”。分流到“普通”流向的較差點的學生在中學第四年結束的時候參加一個“普通”水準考試。“普通”流向的學生占總人數的40%。

由於少於1%的學生入學時適合進華文學校，1983年11月，教育部宣佈(The Straits Times, Nov., 1983)，不遲於1987年，所有的學校都將用英文進行教學。從1983年起，從小一起就不再有馬來語和坦米爾語教學的班，也就是從那時起，全新加坡所有的學校都一樣，所有的學生在校學習的第一語言都是英語。

這一通告(The Straits Times, Nov., 1983)給接受過華文教育的人帶來極大的不安，教育部試圖通過提出一系列可行的步驟去減少這種不安，其中很重要的一步就是增加第一語言為英文和華文的小學學校的數目，並有選擇地在初級學院開始語言選修課程，開華文選修課。

1981年6月，教育部宣佈了進入新加坡國立大學的新的語言要求(The Straits Times, June, 1981)。在這一規定中，對第二語言的要求有所提高。這一通告說，從85/86年起，所有的學生，不管是在那個流向學習的，都將按照同樣的入學標準進行評定。從85/86年起，接受非英語教學的學生都必須在對英語作為第一語言的“O”水準英語考試中得C6和通過普通水準的考試。接受英語教學的學生必須在第二語言考試中拿C6。

1989年，新加坡國立大學面臨一個現實，一些接受英語作為教學語言的學生非常聰明，可他們的第二語言的成績卻很差，於是新加坡國立大學宣佈，在“A”水準考試中第二語言成績較差的學生可以臨時接收入學。這些學生在校可以獲得額外的指導，但必須通過第二語言的考試才能畢業。這次的新的措施降低了對第二語言的要求，從而使得新加坡國立大學招收的女生人數比男生人數多。

教育部相信，部分學生有能力同時學好兩種語言，並都達到第一語言的水準。於是在1980年開始實施“特別輔助計劃學校”計劃(New Education System (Secondary) Implementation Guidelines, 1980)。九所華文中學改為雙語學院。“特別輔助計劃學校”的目

標是針對在小學畢業離校考試中列前10%的學生。創立這些“特別輔助計劃學校”的一個目的是保留原華文學校的傳統特色並對政府對華文水準降低不關心的指控的一個反映。在新加坡華文教師協會的強烈要求下，在1989年，新加坡政府宣佈10所小學是“種子學校”的計劃，對應於中學的“特別輔助計劃學校”學校。

為保證學生對第二語言學習的重視，“雙重策略”也作為一項具體措施得以實施。在1963年及後來在1973年，第一語言和第二語言的分數比重都是數學和科學和的兩倍。然而在1985年，這種分數分配模式就被廢棄了。教育部認為，“雙重策略”對第二語言較差的學生不公平，因為好學生有可能被錯分到較低的流向。

“提高小學教育質量”報告書

1991年3月，教育部發佈了題為“提高小學教育質量”的報告(Ministry of Education, 1991)，這個報告也提議對中小學教育進行調整。在這一報告中對這些調整的必要性也做出了說明，其中的一條是對掌握雙語有困難的學生給予額外的幫助。這一報告提出的有關語言學習方面的主要改變如下：

1. 小學教育的重點是英語，母語和數學。
2. 調整小一到小四的課時分配，33% 英語，20% 數學，20% 其他學科，保留27%的課時為母語學習和德育教育。學校可以根據學生的需要和能力對課時分配進行適當調整。特別考慮到學生的家庭語言環境。
3. 將小學畢業離校考試從原來的通過-不通過改為能力分班考試。
4. 將原來的小三結束時的分流推遲到小四結束時，並在小五和小六提供三種語言學習流向。該報告提議這三種語言流向為：EM1(英語和母語都在第一語言的水準)，EM2(英語在第一語言而母語在第二語言水準)和EM3(英語在第一語言而母語僅在口頭應用水準的)。

在小四結束的分流考試中，英語，華文和數學都達到85分(百分制)以上的(包括85分)學生才能分到EM1流向。這三科中有兩科達到50分(百分制)以上的(包括50分)學生才能分到EM2流向。而至少有兩科不到50分(百分制)的學生就分到EM3流向。

分到EM1流向的學生學習高級母語，因此他們花在母語上的課時比較多些。

因為英語是教學語言，怎麼樣在這樣一個情況下保

持母語的水準呢？對馬來語來說，這不是一個問題，因為它是馬來人的方言，在家裏就經常講的。對不以坦米爾語為母語的印度人，他們可以學習他們自己的方言作為第二語言。儘管在上世紀70年代，許多的華人家庭在家不講華語，但我們可以看得到學生在校內校外的交流中更多的使用華語。我們可以感覺到“講華語運動”和主要媒體的強大影響。中文電視頻道比英文頻道擁有更多的觀眾。同樣的，華文報紙比英文報紙擁有更多的讀者。

有些獎學金也強調了申請者的雙語能力，如總統獎學金，陳家庚獎學金。

以及對雙語較好學生的李光耀獎也體現了母語的重要性。

新的英語語言教學大綱

1991年發佈的新的教學大綱確定了很多的重點以強調語言發展和個性發展的一致性。新的大綱也強調了聽說讀寫四種能力的內在聯繫以及建立這些聯繫的必要性。但更確切的說，新的大綱也注意到，如果學生處於一個新的語言環境，獲得及時的幫助，自學能力也很強，語言能力能以無法預計的速度發展。

英語語言學習扶助計劃

為了扶助那些英語是第二語言的學生，一些特殊的扶助計劃得以產生。在這些計劃中，較成功並一直在實施的計劃是“交流學習經驗”和“建立書海法”。

交流學習經驗法是由Holdaway(1979)在新西蘭提出的。這一方法由於強調兒童在第二語言學習環境中互相交流讀書的樂趣，彌補了家庭內小孩和大人之間溝通的不足。所以對年齡小些的兒童似乎更有效些。建立書海的思想來自於Elley和Manjubhai(1983)報告的Fijian書海經驗。該報告顯示兒童如何在8個月內通過閱讀各種各樣有趣的附有插圖的故事書以提高他們的閱讀和聽寫能力。這一方案似乎對整個英語語言課程原理都有很大的影響。

另一個廣泛應用的閱讀技巧是不被打斷的持續默讀。這一方法適合於各種語言的學習。這一方法要求每個孩子在上學前默讀自己選擇的書半小時。有些學校每天上午單獨騰出半小時的時間用於這種閱讀訓練。用作閱讀訓練的書可以是任何語言的，這種閱讀也同樣適合於中小學校。

華語，馬來語和坦米爾語的將來

對新加坡總體而言，一個基本的趨勢是學好英語，而對華人而言，第二個基本的趨勢是學好華語(Xu, et al, 1998; Ang, 1998)。

Xuetal (1998)的研究得出結論：華語仍將和華語方言同時並存，英語和華語將更普及。Ang (1998)的研究表明，中國市場的開放已經使得華語成為一個重要的語言，它將不僅僅在東方學校裏教授，而且將在越來越多的西方學校裏教授。這一趨勢也在吳作棟(The Straits Times, 19 August, 2002) 2002年的國慶演講中得以強調。吳總理激勵新加坡國民認真學習華語以便進入中國市場。

儘管馬來人中使用英語的人數在增加，但馬來語仍然保持了它的大部分的使用者，因為它既是一種學校語言，也是一種家庭語言(Kamsiah & Bibi, 1998)。

四種官方語言中，失去使用者最多的該數坦米爾語了(Saravanan, 1988)。Saravanan強調，在家裏使用坦米爾語對保持它的繼承性非常重要。然而，對會坦米爾語卻更多地使用英語的印度人來說，坦米爾語也僅僅只是一個教室語言。坦米爾語的低處境也是因為它較多地被低社會地位和職業的人使用的一個重要反映。

新加坡的雙語政策使英語和母語保持了一個很好的平衡，儘管這一政策的策劃者希望英語和亞洲語言同等發展，但實際上這一政策是有利於英語的發展的。

東亞國家的語言教育比較

隨著全球化的加深，雙語教育受到熱來熱多的重視，特別是英語的學習。

在東亞地區，主要以英語和華語作為交流語言的有：中國，中國香港特別行政區，新加坡和臺灣。比較這幾個地區用於這兩種語言學習的時間一定很有趣。在這些國家和地區中，新加坡是唯一的一個以英語作為教學語言的國家，同樣有趣的是，香港特別行政區的英語和華語的教學課時都是最多的。

表三:東亞國家的語言教育

國家	國家語言 / 官方語言 或第一教學語言		其他主要的官方語言和作 為第二語言的英語或外語		外語
	語言	每周大 致課時	語言	每周大 致課時	
中國	華語 (普通話)	4-10	英語	2-5	俄語, 德語, 日語
香港特別 行政區	華語 (粵語)	6-10	英語	8-10	日語
新加坡	英語	4-9	馬來語, 華語, 坦米爾語	2-8	日語, 法語, 德語
臺灣	華語	5	英語 母語	2-3 1-2	法語, 德語, 西班牙語

資料來源:Ho and Wong, 2000

結論：

新加坡的雙語教育有著長達 50 年的歷史。這 50 年的考驗證明新加坡選擇英語作為聯合多種單語言人口的力量是明智的。對母語能力的強調在繼承亞洲人的價值觀以及維持和亞洲周邊鄰國的交流方面取得了成果。英語的精通也有助於獲得英語國家的投資，同樣地，極好的母語水平也有助於建立和中國，印度，汶萊，馬來西亞和印度尼西亞之間的貿易關係。

新加坡的雙語教育使得新加坡人受益，所以也將繼續堅持下去。

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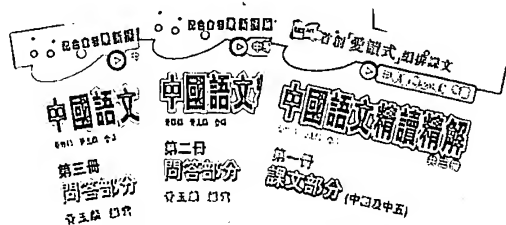
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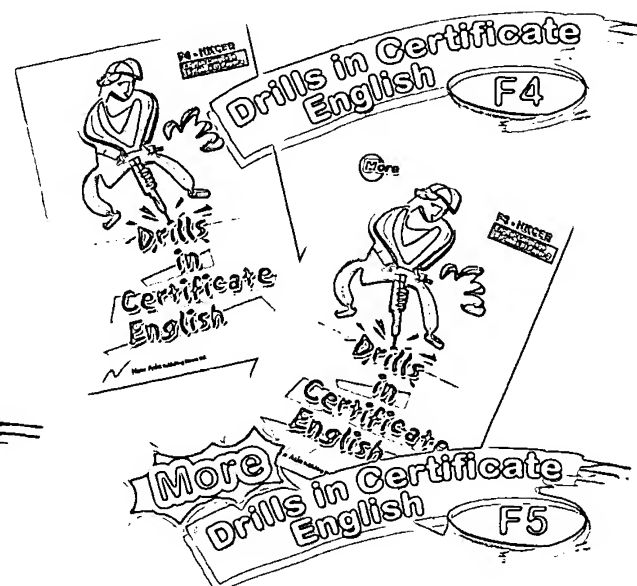
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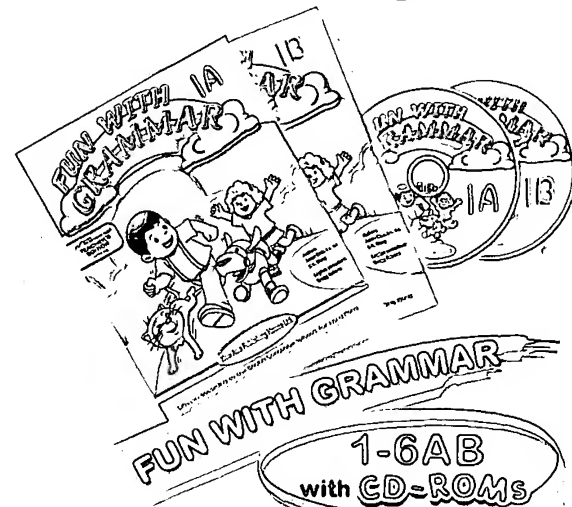
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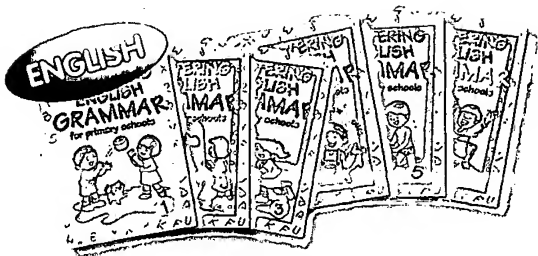


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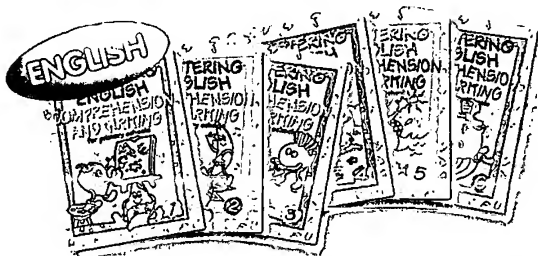
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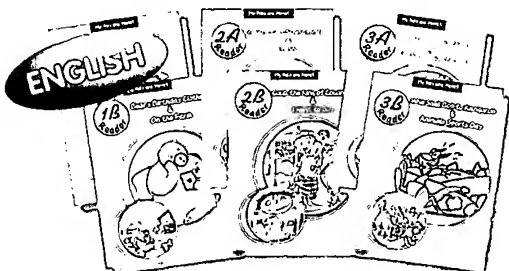
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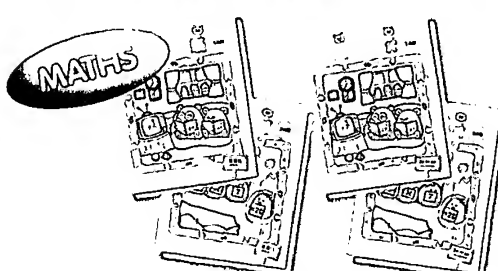
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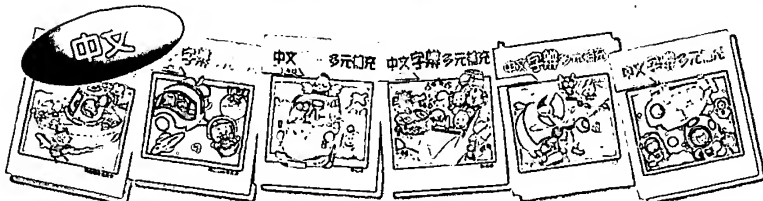
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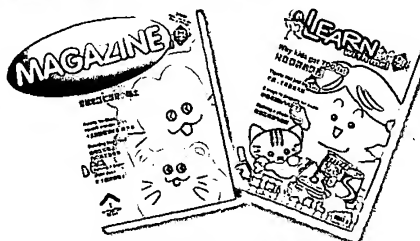
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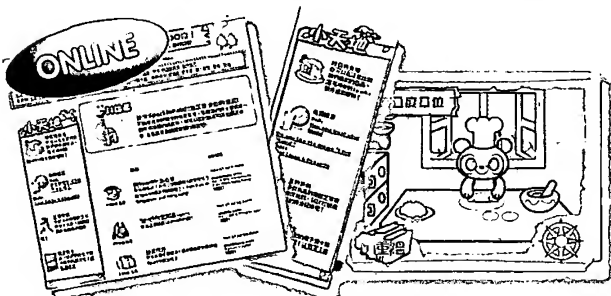
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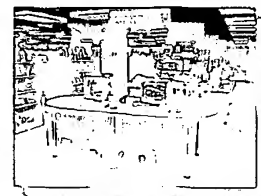


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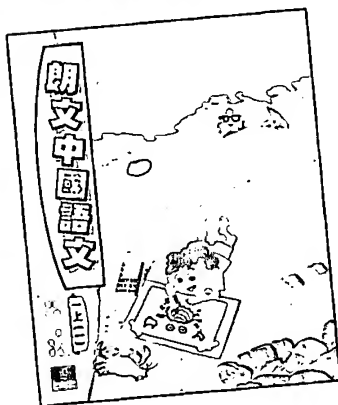
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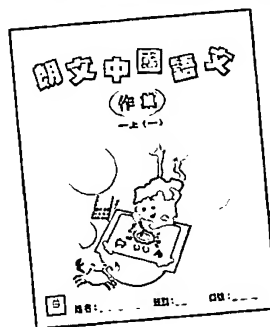
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